CHAPTER 3

WHAT IS STAFF DEVELOPMENT, WHY IS IT NECESSARY AND HOW IS IT CONDUCTED?

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, transformation and its effect on staff development was discussed. This chapter focuses on the why, what and how aspects of staff development. The purpose of this chapter is also to identify variables that drive staff development in a climate of educational transformation. These variables would then contribute towards defining the nature and character of academic staff development that would enhance quality of the academe in the wake of educational transformation.

In subsection 3.1, the reasons and importance for staff development are reiterated. Various factors such as curricula innovations, the application of technology and under-preparedness of academics to teach are mitigating factors as to why staff have to be developed. Subsection 3.2 focuses on what has to be developed and in this respect the concept of scholarship is addressed. Lastly, how staff is conducted is summarized and placed into two categories namely, models and strategies of staff development. A few selected models of staff development are discussed within different philosophies and methodologies (see subsection 3.3.1).

3.2 Why staff development is necessary

Staff development in the workplace is no longer an option. Optimum performance is unlikely to be achieved nor productivity realized without a commitment to staff development. Excellence in performance and a high quality of service can be achieved only if the human resources are deemed just as important as either the physical and financial resources (Horner 1995:5). This is why improving the excellence of the academe remains the paramount reason for academic staff development.

Furthermore, faculty development programmes are crucial if higher education institutions are to respond to complex changes, namely: a) societal needs, b) technological advances and their impact on education and c) the paradigm shift from teaching to learning. Since these changes are ongoing, staff development programmes should never remain static (Millis 1994:458) but be periodically reviewed and changed to optimize the benefits to the participants.

In the context of tertiary education, what are the justifications for implementing staff development programmes? A repertoire of reasons are given in the literature. Moses (1988:192) maintains that the best way to improve the effectiveness of teaching is assumed to be development of academic staff-increasing staff's repertoire of teaching strategies and enhancing their awareness of different aspects of teaching, through staff development. Abruzzese (1996:30-42) takes a humanistic slant by claiming that staff development could be instrumental in providing a respectful, supportive learning environment with emphasis on individuality, caring and competence as well as providing self-worth and self-direction. Bradley (1991:117) contends that staff development brings people together for a much longer time than is normally possible and also helps build a team spirit and sense of shared achievement. Stopera and Scully (1974:393) advise that time spent away from a unit (or department) will yield functional returns in improved quality of work including intrinsic rewards and this could only benefit the institution. Nieman et al. (1997:416) are of the opinion that through a well-planned faculty development programme, an institution will be successful in its mission to retain talented, productive and professionally fulfilled faculty.

McMahon and Merman (1996:703) maintain, however, that most professionals are not prepared to assume responsibility for developing a plan to guide their continuing professional education. When confronted with options they may choose activities in a random fashion because of convenience, attractiveness of the topic, the speaker's reputation or other factors that have little or nothing to do with their learners' needs. Assistance can be given through staff development efforts by offering educational activities specifically designed to improve or enhance their performance.
There are many reasons for staff development being necessary in this day and age. In tertiary education, these reasons center largely around a knowledge-based, technological, transforming society, paradigm shifts in teaching/learning and curricula innovations. How would such issues of transformation like curriculum development, curricula innovations, equity issues and quality in education influence the professional development of educators? Furthermore, what other factors provide a rationale for staff development? Figure 3.1 gives an overview of these parameters which will form a framework for discussion for the rest of subsection 3.2.

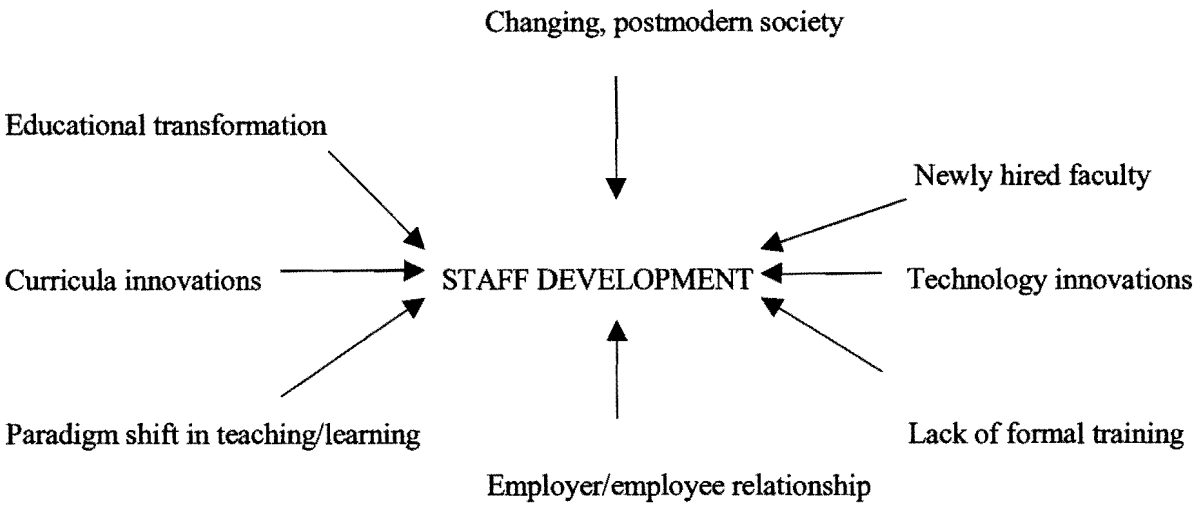

Figure 3.1: Factors that provide a rationale for staff development.

3.2.1. Staff development in a changing, transforming, technological, postmodern society

Burton-Jones (2001:225) maintains that in the new knowledge-based economy, individuals and institutions must focus on maintaining and enhancing their biggest asset: their knowledge capital. Therefore, it is clear that the demand for education and training will increase. "Education and training is set to be one of, if not the biggest growth industry of the knowledge economy" (Burton-Jones 2001:231). Surely then, when institutions like universities, technikons and colleges are "working" with knowledge, that the very people involved in the transmission and creation of knowledge would require training and development in handling their tasks more effectively and efficiently. Staff development would enable them to design more effective learning programmes and make better choices regarding the teaching/learning and research process. Similarly, Burton-Jones (2001:232) goes on to explain that as working and learning become synonymous, workers and educators will need to adapt to new roles and develop new strategies. Understanding the dynamics of knowledge demand and supply should assist all the actors in navigating the knowledge markets of the new economy.

Furthermore, increased technology increases the requisite knowledge and skills to be learnt and learning is central to the information age. New knowledge will lead to new applications of that knowledge and thus the need for professionals to learn will also continue. For example, an estimated 10% of a professional's knowledge in a high-technology related field becomes obsolete each year (Abruzzese 1996:20). Further, to meet the educational challenges of the 21st century, everyone who affects student learning must continually upgrade their skills (Sparks 1994:29).

Upgrading one's skills involves intelligence which obviously means using one's brain. Brightman and Moran (2001:245) explain that the brain system that dominates is determined by the strategies that people use to manage themselves and others as well as to structure the work environment (see table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Using evolution in the teaching/learning environment (Adapted from Brightman and Moran 2001:274).

Paleolithic brain	**21st century brain**
Breathing, eating,	Strategic planning
Flight/flight	Creative problem-solving
Here and now	Future focus
"Me"	"Us"

A rough interpretation of this is that people would need to come out of their primitive survival mode wherein they use their (lower) reptile brain focusing mostly on just surviving on a day to day basis, reacting/responding to life's situations instead of being proactive, and being oblivious that the future can change. To survive in the 21st century, people would need to use their "upper brain"- that which is involved in critical and creative thinking, decision-making, planning and solving problems in a co-operative way within teams. We would need to evolve in our thinking and behavior if we are to cope with life in the new millennium.

Part of the process of evolving towards using our "intelligent brain", would be that of adapting to a society that is undergoing accelerated change. Adapting to technology, for instance, is a prerequisite to survival in a technocratic world, for example by becoming computer literate. Computers are used for record keeping, word processing, data retrieval and information exchange on the internet and so forth (Abruzzese 1996:20). Indeed, advances in technology are changing the face of education. Newer digital technologies such as student-directed hypermedia programmes or large-scale databases accessible through computer networks promise to transform the future (Millis 1994:456).

Web-based teaching is being utilized in higher education as a course supplement (Surry and Land 2000:147 and Rawn et al. 2000:540) while encompassing novel educational principles such as peer assessement (Freedman et al. 2000:539) and vertical and horizontal integration across a medical curriculum, as well as self-directed learning (Youngblood et al. 2000:541). See paragraph 2.3.2.2.

To cope with the vast amount of knowledge and information, computer literacy training can be effected through staff development programmes (Abruzzese 1996:20). Faculty who choose to make use of the advantages of technology need to be trained to enhance the teaching/learning process by creating richer, more interactive, integrated materials. It is essential for them to know how to capitalize on integrated technological supports for teaching and learning (Millis 1994:456). Most staff are confused and feel threatened by new technology which impedes effective teaching (Keane in Millis 1994:456). Therefore, through staff development they must be supported in their efforts to regard these new technologies as options and opportunities rather than obstacles (Millis 1994:456). For faculty to buy-in to the idea of enhancing the use of technology in their teaching and research, Surry and Land (2000:150) suggest the use of four strategies namely, attention gaining strategies, relevance gaining strategies, confidence building strategies and satisfaction strategies (see paragraph 2.3.3).

The importance of staff development in the wake of technological advances cannot be overemphasized as inexperienced faculty would require coaching in the novel methods of teaching and learning with technology (Millis, 1994:456). Examples of staff development programmes that utilize the world wide web (www) are given in the literature (Schlesinger 1999:95 and Shapiro and Cartwright 1998:51-52). See paragraph 2.3.3.

Adding to this, with the short "half-life" of knowledge and technological innovations, life-long learning is compulsory for virtually all workers (Millis 1994:455). Since learning is a life-long process, staff development becomes important. Life-long learning is especially well illustrated in health care where the need to adapt to change is constant, with technological developments, varying economic and political demands, changes to funding and increasing public awareness and expectation of quality service (Horner 1995:5). Thus, there is a need to continually update skills and knowledge relevant to an employment context (Gathers, in Horner 1995:6). Being a medical university, MEDUNSA could also be subjected to the changes described by Horner (1995:5) and thus staff development to help faculty cope with these changes, becomes imperative.

Undoubtedly, in the context of globalization and rapid change, students must learn how to interact positively with people from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds, how to resolve conflicts and how to manage personal change. Moreover, the workforce in the future will change dramatically, becoming older, more female and more disadvantaged. The "elitist" view of education will no longer serve our fast-paced technological, globally connected world. Therefore, faculty must be encouraged to expand their views of education and to develop professionally themselves (Millis 1994:455).

Faculty will also have to be taught how to educate in relevant, flexible and creative ways. Learners entering the workforce will need critical thinking, writing and social skills as well as a spirit of inquiry that would enable them to develop intellectually over a lifetime. The corporate world is placing an increased emphasis on co-operation and teamwork. Faculty must be skilled practitioners in the roles their students must assume. Faculty and students alike must be prepared to flourish in an increasingly technological, knowledge-driven society (Millis 1994:455).

Additionally, in a climate of socio-political changes, substantial changes to the curriculum and changes in accountability, staff development is becoming recognized as of central importance. Hence, fundamental purposes of staff development are:

1) To make people feel valued in their job.
2) To enable them to perform their job well through job satisfaction and motivation.
3) To help them prepare for changes in their work.
4) To make them feel willing and competent to contribute constructively to the development of the organization (Bradley 1991:2).

Indeed, in many higher education institutions, staff development that allows faculty to see their professional tasks and responsibilities in the face of changing institutional missions and priorities is regarded as an essential ingredient for success in times of change and transformation (Austin 1998:13). Specifically, in South Africa, following socio-political change and as part of the reconstruction and development process, the training and development of people is recognized as being crucial in the capacity building necessary for transformation. In the White Paper 3 (Department of Education 1997:5) it is acknowledged that resource development through mobilization of talent and potential through lifelong learning is important in contributing to the social, economic, cultural and intellectual life of a rapidly changing society. What is more, high-level skills training is imperative in strengthening the country's enterprises, services and infrastructure. This would require the development of professionals and knowledge workers with globally equivalent skills.

Also, in planning a single co-coordinated system of higher education in South Africa to address the legacy of the past and to respond to national needs, institutional plans will be expected to include (*inter alia*) plans for academic development (Department of Education 1997:12). Thus, transformation in education cannot happen without adequate staff development, as is evident in this quotation:

> "The ministry regards teacher education (including the professional education of trainers and educators) as one of the central pillars of national human resource development strategy, and the growth of professional expertise and self-confidence is the key to teacher development" (Department of Education 1995:16).

Academic development programmes are needed in all higher education institutions to promote the development of teaching skills, curricula and courseware. Such programmes will be given status and recognition as integral elements of a higher education system committed to redress and to improving the quality of learning and teaching (Department of Education 1997:15).

The importance of staff development at tertiary level is also acknowledged by other countries. For example the UK government which recognizes that the realization of the vision for a transformed higher education in the UK is dependent on enhancing the professional skills of people in higher education (see paragraph 2.7.3). In New Zealand, according to the QAANZ Report (1999:3, 24), transformation in education that promotes lifelong learning and is aimed at the continuing enhancement of quality in education and one that provides qualifications for a knowledge society, is dependent on adequate staff development (see paragraph 2.7.2).

In subsection 1.4.3.1, it was stated that a specific objective of the literature investigation was to examine the factors that contribute towards educational transformation at tertiary institutions from an international and national perspective. This objective was partially achieved in the literature discussions of chapter 2. This chapter is also concerned with factors that drive educational transformation and the implications for staff development.

The next subsection (paragraph 3.2.2) dwells deeper into the issue of educational transformation in South Africa, attempts to pinpoint factors that steer the educational transformation process and explains why staff development is necessary to facilitate the transformation process.

3.2.2 Educational transformation in South Africa and its impact on academic staff development

In what way will educational transformation influence staff development and what will these issues be? By the same token, why should it be necessary for staff development to address the issues of educational transformation? The South African scenario will be used as a point of departure to answer these questions, mainly because this study has been conducted at a South African university. The Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (Department of Education 1996) provides

some valuable information on the transformation process and therefore has been used as a fulcrum around which a number of arguments pivot. Figure 3.2 gives an outline of the issues generated from the South African government's educational transformation policies that will impact on the training and development of tertiary educators. Firstly though, transformation as a type of change and reform and peoples' level of adaptability to that kind of change, will be examined.

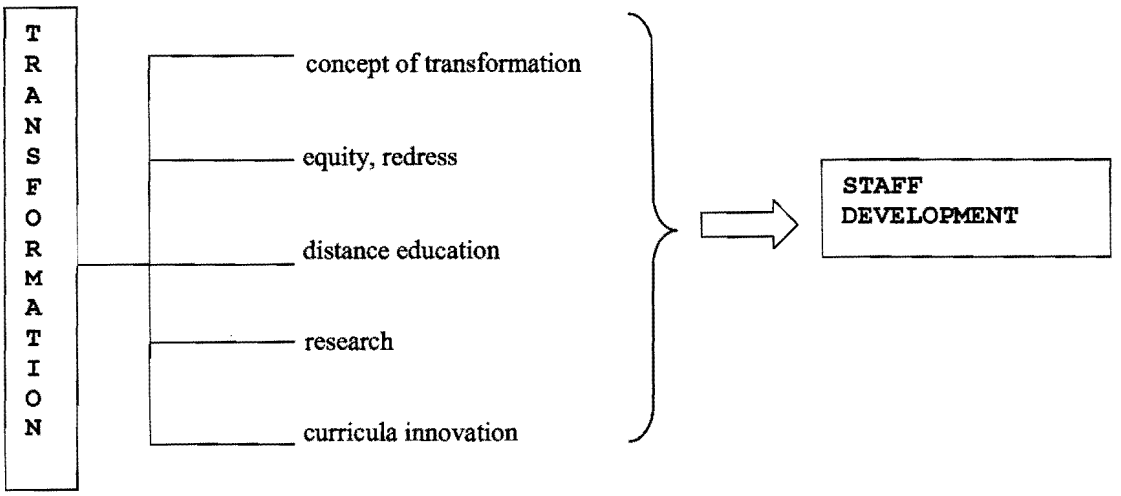

Figure 3.2: Issues of educational transformation in South Africa to be addressed by staff development.

3.2.2.1 The concept of educational transformation and coping with change

In South Africa educational transformation revolves around overcoming the inequities of the past and restructuring the higher education system to meeting the needs of an advancing technologically orientated economy, knowledge-based society and to enable its citizens to be internationally competent (Department of Education 1996:15). In this regard, many changes will be occurring in the academic workplace especially in relation to curriculum development, innovative teaching/learning methodology and educational programmes to ensure that the quality of tertiary education in South Africa is on a par with international standards. It was planned in 1996 that:"The programmes offered by institutions should be registered on the NQF and a new QA system should be developed for higher education" (Department of Education 1996:16). This implies that academics would be forced to adapt to novel ways of performing their tasks and cannot revert to the status quo.

Therefore, it would be accurate to say that educational transformation in this country enforces a totally new way of doing things, which can be perplexing to those who are to implement this change. It is clear from the literature that people respond to change in different ways- they may adapt, be

skeptical or totally oppose change (Doyle and Ponder, in Bradley 1991:65-66). See also paragraph 2.6.3. It becomes important then that the fears and doubts of academic staff be addressed, for example through staff development programmes which will also provide a forum for opinions and feelings to be ventilated (Poole 1979:95). See paragraph 2.6.3.

A staff development programme that used the empirical/rational strategy is described in the literature. In a project aimed at introducing educators in the Western Cape to OBE, participants in the workshops were given an opportunity to express their views on what they felt should be the role of educators in the context of rapid social and educational change. They saw their role was changing to include developing programmes relevant to their learners' needs, being facilitators of learning, being researchers and liaisons with local communities (Le Grange and Reddy 2000:22). Therefore, this approach enabled participants to become aware that change is occurring and that as educators they need to play a meaningful role within the change process. Le Grange and Reddy (2000:23) concluded from their study that there appeared to be an "openness and willingness to engage in the process of change despite existing pressures, crises and challenges".

More generally, the essence of dealing with people involved in educational transformation is captured very well in the following quotation:

> "It may be more difficult to change beliefs and values than introduce a new curriculum. Existing norms, comfort zones and inherent beliefs about what a curriculum is must be taken into account and empathetically handled. Mere presentation of curriculum material may do little to alter attitudes and paradigms" (Stenhouse quoted in Sing and Manser 2000:110).

In the following subsection (3.2.2.2) yet another very crucial aspect of educational transformation in South Africa, namely that of equity and redress, is discussed. This issue is profoundly relevant bearing in mind the emergence from a system of racial desegregation and discrimination against women. The implications of redress and establishing equity for educators are that they will have to cope with learners of varying learning styles and educational backgrounds.

3.2.2.2 Equity, redress and development: Implications for staff development

Since the inception of the ANC government in 1994, there has been a concerted effort to correct gender and racial imbalances in tertiary education institutions. These changes have been facilitated mainly by government policies (Hyde-Clarke Humphries 2000:27). Therefore, in 1996 it was acknowledged that as part of the transformation process, policies would need to be in place that would

help overcome patterns of inequality and inefficiency. To this end, access for black students and women from a broader array of social groups and classes would have to be increased. Tertiary education systems will have to cater for a more diverse student body, namely, traditional clients (school leavers) as well as mature students in the pursuit of "multi-skilling" and "re-skilling", in addition to adults previously denied access to higher education. "The implications of the predicted "massification" for higher education institutions is that they would need to generate new models of learning new curricula and more varied modes of delivery and teaching/learning to accommodate a larger, more diverse student population (Department of Education 1996:15, 18).

Expansion, however, will mean changes that must accompany greater numbers while at the same time focusing on maintaining quality. These changes include the "composition of the student body, the diversification of programmes, curricula and qualifications, the introduction of multiple entry and exit points, new relations between study and the workplace and shifts in institutional functions and missions". This would require replacing traditional models of discipline-based, sequential courses and qualifications with an open, flexible system (Department of Education 1996:18).

Van Schoor (1990: 18) purports that educators should not make the mistake of treating their students as a homogenous group of individuals and should be aware of the differences in academic preparedness among students of different races because of the differences in their primary and secondary schooling. On the same note, Fransman (2001:7) reminds us that very few individuals who enter tertiary institutions are independent learners and for them a special kind of teaching is necessary. With previously disadvantaged students, more effort is needed than for students who have independent learning abilities and who enter tertiary education with higher grades. Therefore, traditional methods of teaching/learning might no longer be effective and will have to be modified.

The literature reveals that government policies regarding redress and equity is coming to fruition. For example, empirical evidence that the number of females graduating with degrees and diplomas at the University of Witwatersrand has increased after 1995 up to 1999, is given by Hyde-Clarke Humphries (2000:29). The increase of female registrants has also occurred on a national scale from 202 000 in 1993 to 291 000 in 1999. These statistics suggest that new government policy regarding women in higher education has been successful and effective in encouraging previously marginalized groups to attend university (Hyde-Clarke Humphries 2000:29, 30). Additionally, historically white institutions now enroll 39% of African students; an increase from the 13% they enrolled in 1993 (Gultig 2000:44). Overall enrolment at universities and technikons grew by 28% between 1993 and 1998 (Essop in Gultig 2000:44). It is interesting that there is far less emphasis on gender equity than on race equity, shown by many institutions. While attempts are being made to develop strategies and

interventions to address race equity, this does not apply to gender equity issues (Asmal 2001:par. 3.1.3).

In the UK, patterns of representation of female students have not translated into a significant change in the representation of female staff and administrators. A similar trend is observable in the South African context. (Mabokela 2003:130). Therefore, a major challenge in higher education in this period of transformation is that of gender. "The challenge is to narrow the gender gap or eliminate it and only then will transformation be complete" (Zulu 2003:98). A continuation of this discussion on gender equity is located in subsection 7.16.1.

On another point, Venter (2000:66) quotes Mkabela and Luthuli as saying that courses to prepare educators to deal with diversity should be included in educator education programmes and that educators should be encouraged to adopt a pluralistic approach. Higgs (in Venter 2000:67) advocates that a sense of plurality has to do with commitment, caring and feeling. At the cognitive level Venter (2000:67) explains that educational discourse could focus on issues such as teaching and learning as empowerment practices so that learners can be successful in a diverse setting.

If students are coming from a more diverse background, educators will need to become more sensitive when dealing with people of different cultures and races. As Asmal (2000:4) so poignantly puts it " Non-discriminatory admission is one thing. Actively creating a new, inclusive model school, college, technikon or university which reflects our rich diversity is another". On the cognitive level, academic staff will need to be trained and educated in designing and implementing innovative learning/teaching methods and curricula, to be able to handle large classes and a larger number of student with varying learning styles and needs. A staff development programme should address these issues if our educators are to become what Badley (2001:248) calls "globally competent". Further to this, in referring to the "expansion and growth in the context of equity" it is acknowledged in the Green Paper (Department of Education 1996:19) that staff development is an important factor:

> "Establishing and strengthening academic development structures at all higher education institutions to promote quality teaching and learning through staff, curriculum and materials development" (Department of Education 1996:19).

Now that education has become more accessible to all people irrespective of race, gender and background, it was predicted that the demand for tertiary education would increase (although this did not happen). It was envisaged that one possible solution is distance education; which is something the Department of Education encourages.

In subsection 3.2.2.3, it is debated why distance education is still legitimate and why adopting distance education would entail specialized preparation of educators for implementation of such a methodology of teaching/learning.

3.2.2.3. Distance education as an educational transformation issue

It can be argued that apart from addressing the issue of massification, distance education is still definitely relevant and valid in the absence of massification. This is because there are other advantages of distance education, namely its logistical feasibility and its attraction for people wanting to further their qualifications (Adey 1990:68 and Dekker and Lemmer 1993:346) in order to remain marketable in a knowledge-driven society.

Arguably, e-learning can be described as a form of distance education that uses sophisticated technology. The principles of implementing e-learning would be very similar to those of distance education. This perception is supported by the recommendation of Mashile and Pretorius (2003:133, 138) that:

> "The inclusion of online education as part of a distance education programme, is not unreasonable. Online education denotes the processes entailed in distance education where net-work technologies such as the internet are used to make connections among students, teachers and educational materials".

At MEDUNSA, all programmes in the NSPH are offered in an e-learning mode using asynchronous instruction. These educators could benefit from training in distance education principles which would be applicable in the context of e-learning, yet no such training is being provided by the institution (see problem statement in subsection 1.2.4).

What is the attraction in moving towards a distance mode of andragogy? One of the reasons is that the lavish years of educational funding ended in most parts of the world, South Africa being no exception. At the same time, there are large populations of the young and not so young whose demand for educational opportunity is pressing (Adey 1990:69). Among the greatest problems faced by those seeking tertiary education are the time and money costs of participating in educational activities (McMahon and Merman 1996:702). This is why distance education has become an obvious choice. "Nobody can deny that distance education is cost effective" (Andrew in Adey 1990:69).

Indeed, distance education has proved to have the capacity of providing education to large numbers of people, of doing this at lower cost and doing this without withdrawing participants from their work and home (Adey 1990:68 and Dekker and Lemmer 1993:346). Still on the same point, McMahon and

Merman (1996:703) purport that distance education not only makes possible the delivery of education and training to large numbers of learners at locations and times that are convenient to them but it also facilitates the widespread dissemination of excellent instruction.

Also, the growth and popularity of distance education has been stimulated by the concept of equal educational opportunities especially for the socially disadvantaged people and the geographically isolated. This phenomenon advocates the democratization of education for the masses and a shift away from elitist education. The provision of distance education has also made the provision of lifelong education possible, enabling students to study anywhere, anytime and at any age (Dekker and Lemmer 1993:349-351).

Many countries have used distance education successfully to reach clients who could not attend conventional institutions. In the 1970's a radio-based school, located in Columbia, was instrumental in reaching hundreds of thousands of rural peasant students each year. In the USA, the National Technological University uses satellite and broadcasting technology to address the needs of students engaged in postgraduate studies while still remaining in employment and not having to be physically present on campus. Also, the integrated application of television, classroom sessions and printed materials provides an educational opportunity for one third of higher education students in China (Perraton, Creed and Robinson 2002:12).

It is not surprising, then, that in the Green Paper (Department of Education 1996:22-23), distance education has been identified as being able to play an important role in addressing the challenge of increased access and enhanced quality in the context of resource constraints and adverse student body. Also, distance education means that the quality and success of teaching is not dependent on employing more staff as the student population increases for these reasons. The South African Department of Education is very keen on encouraging distance education programmes in certain fields by contact institutions as a means for improving quality and cost-effectiveness.

Koul and Jenkins (1990:145) contends that the most important input in any educational project is the human element, especially the teaching force. Distance education educators require specialist training above that which is required for traditional teaching/learning. It is the contention of Dekker and Lemmer (1993:341-342) that distance education does imply the autonomy of the learner but as a corollary to this, the instructor has a special responsibility to remain in continuous tutorial relationship with the student who will eventually assume responsibility and develop the capacity for self-directed learning.

Why should this training and development be so specialized? By examining the tasks of educators within distance education, it becomes apparent that certain skills and knowledge of educators are required if distance education is to be successful, otherwise the cost-effective benefits of distance education could easily be cancelled out if the attrition rate of students is high. Thus, consider the following arguments which range from exposition of knowledge and information to andragogic support in the form of guiding and accompanying students on the path to an uncertain future.

For a start, no educator can justify his/her position as a member of staff responsible for learner progress if they cannot satisfactorily explain the content of his/her subject (Smit 1990:478). The transfer of knowledge depends on the educator's ability to be a successful expositor, and not only on the extent of his/her academic expertise. Knowledge alone is not sufficient; it is the effectiveness of the teaching that counts and this depends mainly upon the educator's ability to "tune" in to the level of the learner's level of understanding. This is especially significant in distance education since successful exposition (through a study guide, tutorial letter, telephone, tapes and more) would help overcome the impersonality of distance. "Good exposition brings something home to the learner" (Smit 1990:478). Thus, educators cannot simply dump an assortment of facts and information on their learners and expect that the knowledge will be systematically clarified (Smit 1990:479).

In continuation, Smit (1990:480) reminds us that distance educators often have to do without blackboards and technological aids and are to a large extent dependent upon their own ability to explain their subject matter by means of the written word and occasionally the spoken word (tape, telephone, discussion class). To this end, Adey, Grous, Heese and Le Roux (1992:63) purport that the educator must be trained to "address" an absent individual and conduct mediated learning by means of reselected and pre-structured content.

The distant student, however, needs more than material or academic support- he/she needs to be orientated in norms and meanings. Therefore, the distance educator must assume a facilitatory role rather than a didactic one by orientating more on the learner than on the content (Adey et al. 1992:63). It could also very well be that the adult learner requires the educator's support for educating his/her total personality. He/she may require general support in the form of advice, counseling as well as regular and non-threatening contact. Therefore, the distance educator's role is wider than that of subject educator and includes communicating warmly across a distance. To be successful in such a role, he/she needs to be a skilled and relaxed communicator (Adey et al. 1992:62).

Holmberg's (in Dekker and Lemmer 1993:342) theory on distance education is one of guided didactic conversation. He argues that education is based on communication between learner and educator in a peer group interaction and that this communication takes the form of a guided conversation. Under

these circumstances, students will be more successful than if the course had an impersonal textbook character. Consequently, distance learning materials should constitute easily accessible presentations of study matter. In conjunction with this, explicit advice on studying strategies should be imparted to the student.

Considering all of the above arguments, it is clear that if educators are to implement distance education then staff development is crucial. It would not be expedient to expect educators who have been involved in contact teaching throughout their careers to automatically be expert distance educators without any training and development.

Another issue that was discussed in the Green Paper (Department of Education 1996:30-31) as being important in the transformation process was that of research. Research is indispensable in a changing, democratic country like South Africa which is aiming to develop its citizens to become more internationally marketable and competitive. The literature, however, shows that the research capacity and outputs of the academe needs to be further developed. More information on the subject of research is covered in the next subsection.

3.2.2.4 Research as an educational transformation issue

The Education White Paper 3 (Department of Education 1997: 22) recognizes that research is a kingpin in the "production, advancement and dissemination of knowledge and the development of high level human resources". It further argues that research is the "principal tool for creating new knowledge" and that "the dissemination of knowledge through teaching and collaboration in research tasks are the principal tools for developing academic and research staff through post graduate study and training".

Further, noting that knowledge is the core business of higher education, the NCHE (in the Department of Education 1996:30) explains that:

> "Higher education is the repository of advanced knowledge: research creates it, scholarship preserves, refines and modifies it, teaching disseminates it and professional services use it in developing the wider community. Higher education then, has a profound interest in research not simply as a site of innovation or as a strategic national resource, but as the prime source of its core community. Without research and new knowledge, the higher education enterprise has no substance and no future".

That said, there are some concerns about the capacity, distribution and outcomes of research in South African HEIs, especially the following (NCHE in Department of Education 1996:30):

1) There exists insufficient articulation between the research efforts and national needs for social, economic, intellectual and cultural reconstruction.
2) There is insufficient research capacity in higher education.
3) There are glaring race, gender and institutional imbalances in participation in research activity. Most researchers are male and white and this has to change if this country is to reap the full benefit of its research potential.

Thus, the ministry argues that the current capacity of research in higher education must be increased, current research resources protected, new sources of research funding found and all these resources used more effectively. Research and development activities in government departments, research councils and private sector should be undertaken in collaboration with universities and technikons. Another cause for concern is that the distribution of research capacity in higher education institutions is skewed. Under apartheid the development of research capacity at black universities was severely limited and the HDUs have only recently integrated research into their core functions (Department of Education 1997:22).

Consider the following statistics which attest to the imbalances mentioned in the previous paragraph. The historically white universities appear to have an overwhelming dominance in most fields of research. In 1993, they employed 51% of academic staff in the tertiary education sector yet produced 83% of research articles and 81% of all masters and doctoral graduates (Department of Education 1996:13). The lack of research outputs at historically black universities is further endorsed by Gultig (2000:45) who reported that a quarter of South Africa's 21 universities (all historically white) produced more than 70% of the published research between 1986-1996. Available data even suggests a decline in total published outputs. The output for 1999 was 10% less than that for 1997. Whatever the reason, this decline seriously calls into question the ability of the higher education system to meet the research development agenda of South Africa (Asmal 2001:par 5.1).

In South Africa today, the research system takes two main challenges. It must "redress past inequities and strengthen and diversify research capacity". Concomitantly, it must keep abreast with the emerging global trends addressing critical national needs, which requires collaboration between knowledge producers, knowledge interpreters and knowledge managers and implementers (Department of Education 1997:23). Additionally, "the development and sustainability of the national research system is also dependent on its ability to respond to the opportunities and challenges

provided by the global transformation in knowledge production and dissemination" (Asmal 2001:par 5.1).

Commenting on the significance of research, Asmal (2001: par 5.1) had this to say:

> "The value and importance of research cannot be overemphasized. Research in all its forms and functions is perhaps the most powerful vehicle that we have to deepen our democracy. Research engenders the values of inquiry, critical thinking, creativity and open-mindedness which are fundamental to building a strong, democratic ethos in society...It makes possible the growth of an innovative culture in which new ideas, approaches and applications increase the adaptive and responsive capacity of our society, thereby enhancing both our industrial competitiveness and our ability to solve our most pressing social challenges".

It makes sense, therefore, that developing and encouraging research among academics should be another aspect of staff development programmes especially at a HDU like MEDUNSA. Also, such research should be relevant to national needs and should make a contribution in the international community.

Apart from research, another component of the professional tasks and functions of an academic is that of educating. Recently, there has been a change from the didactic, traditional model of instruction that imparts vast volumes of information, to one that calls for facilitation of the teaching/learning process and the inculcation of self-directed learning skills. This change has been termed the "paradigm shift" from teaching to learning.

3.2.3 The paradigm shift from teaching to learning: Implications for staff development

Living in the information age implies having to cope with increasing knowledge (Swenson 1998:1,4) and to become productive as knowledge workers, students would need skills like critical thinking, effective communication, interpersonal and collaborative skills. Demands are also made on workers to be flexible, adaptable and innovative in a high-tech, complex, competitive workplace (Spady 1999:32). It is the task of higher education institutions, therefore, to prepare graduates to meet these requirements and demands while at the same time contributing to the development of society (Department of Education 2000:24). See paragraph 2.4.1.

In fact, in these rapidly changing times, there is more pressure than ever to innovate in teaching and learning methods. Barr and Tagg (1995:14,15) explain that there is a paradigm shift taking place; from the old instruction paradigm to the new learning paradigm. In the instruction paradigm, any expert could teach. A formal educational qualification was not required to become an educator at tertiary level (Barr and Tagg, 1995:14,15). In the learning paradigm, changes in the role of the educator are required if student-centered teaching strategies are to be effective. So, it is necessary for a teacher's role to change from that of an authority figure with superior knowledge on content to that of a model, guide and facilitator of the learning process (Rideout 1994:149 and Holthauzen 1998:33). The introduction of new information technologies, illustrates the need for different definitions and models of staff development and for a variety of aims (Main 1985:11).

Faculty members' attitudes and interests may be the most important determinants of the quality of a learning environment (Strayhorn, 1989:28). Lack of knowledge or a negative outlook, for instance, might influence the facilitation process, to the detriment of the students. Knowledge of educational theories would help educators understand why certain methods are necessary in the implementation of a novel programme and to help them become more productive. The transition to the learning paradigm, however, will be neither instantaneous nor easy (Barr and Tagg 1995:21).

Moreover, to assume that the inculcation of novel facilitation and learning skills can be left to chance, strikes at the core of professionalism. In order to succeed at novel facilitation tasks, faculty development is essential. It would improve the "educational vitality of academic institutions through attention to the competencies needed by every individual to promote academic excellence" (Wilkerson and Irby 1998:387). Nieman et al. (1997:504) cite that when implementing an institution-wide faculty development plan, one should acknowledge that whilst the old systems of training faculty served us well in the past, they do not work in the current environment of change. Barr and Tagg (1995:15) for example, emphasize that educators would need training in co-operative, collaborative learning experiences and Candy (1991:xiv) notes the importance of self-directed learning as a staff development topic (see paragraph 2.4.2).

The facilitation of learning is covered in more detail in subsection 3.2.4 since curricula innovations demand a shift in the role of the educator from transmitter of information to facilitator of learning. The impact of OBE and PBL on staff development also receives attention.

3.2.4 Curricula innovations and implications for staff development

Inherent in this subsection is a summary of OBE and PBL which was extensively covered in subsections 2.5.1.1, 2.5.1.2, 2.5.2.1 and 2.5.2.2.

3.2.4.1 Problem-based Learning (PBL)and Outcomes-based Education (OBE)

In order to meet the demands of a changing society, the rigid, prescriptive, traditional curriculum is fast becoming inappropriate (Baron and Boschee 1996:574). This is why it has become necessary to be innovative in the design of educational methodologies. Two major curricula innovations namely, OBE and PBL were covered in the previous chapter (see paragraph 2.5.1 and paragraph 2.5.2 respectively) and the implications of adopting these innovations with respect to staff development were discussed (see paragraph 2.5.1.3 and 2.5.2.3).

Essentially, the major hallmarks of PBL are self-directed, lifelong learning, student-centeredness (Schmidt et al. 1987:305, Walton and Matthews 1989:551) and emphasis of relevant knowledge taught in context, while inculcating critical, creative thinking and problem-solving skills (Bligh 1995:323 and Colliver 2000:259). In PBL, learning starts with a problem and is solved through clinical reasoning (Barrows 1986:481 and Windish 2000:90). Problem-based learning is very viable in a society undergoing change as it would better prepare learners to cope in such a complex, fluctuating environment. Problem-based learning methods help to generate active, independent learners with creative, divergent thinking skills who are good communicators (Mennin and Martinez-Burrola 1986:193). Also, they would be more capable of applying theoretical knowledge to real life problems and their careers (Dahle et al.1997:417).

In OBE, the curriculum design process starts with defining the outcomes (Olivier 1998:2). The main principles of OBE are student-centeredness (Spady 1999:27), emphasis on competence, that is, application of knowledge in real life situations (Westera 2001:75 and Spady 1993:24), critical and creative thinking (Olivier 1998:34, 39), self-directed learning (Claassen 1998:36, 37) with an emphasis on a holistic and integrated approach towards learning (Olivier 1998:2).

Thus, both PBL and OBE advocate similar principles and philosophies. The main difference is that PBL is a method (Barrows 1986:481) while OBE is predominantly a philosophy (Baron and Boschee 1996:576). When one takes into account the contributions that PBL and OBE can make to society in terms of preparing graduates to be lifelong learners and being able to solve problems cooperatively as well as being capable of complex, divergent thinking, it is little wonder that most countries, for example New Zealand, Australia, the UK and the USA are adopting these innovative curricula (see paragraphs 2.5.1.3, 2.7.1 and 2.7.2). South Africa has borrowed from the experiences of other countries using OBE and sought to undergo a complete transformation of the educational system which included changing to a new curriculum. In this regard, SAQA and the NQF were established to facilitate the transformation process (SAQA 1995:1 and The Department of Education 1995:10) and

with this move came the adoption of an outcomes-based approach to education (Jacobs 1999:136). See paragraph 2.7.1.4.

3.2.4.2 The impact of curricula innovations on academic staff development

It makes sense that when curriculum development is undergoing such radical transformation and has to be seen from such a different dimension, that those involved in the very process of implementation of novel curricula, will need to be trained and developed. Indeed the importance of proper implementation of a new curriculum (for example OBE) is stressed in the literature:

> "If educators do not believe in the methodology suggested, have no faith in the successful implementation of the model proposed, have no sense of ownership pertaining to changes that will need to be made and little or no common vision as to where they are going, then the likelihood of OBE reaching its suggested potential could be questionable" (Singh and Manser 2000:111).

Staff development with respect to curricula innovation was covered at some length in chapter 2 where OBE and the implications for staff development (see paragraph 2.5.1.3) as well as PBL and the implications for staff development were discussed (see paragraph 2.5.2.3). Sections 2.51.3 and 2.5.2.3 focused largely on the cognitive aspects of staff development with respect to the two innovations. In this section, the affective aspects will receive attention simply because staff development is not only about imparting knowledge and skills but relates to the inculcation of positive attitudes and values of participants and a change of the existing mindset. This is poignantly reflected in the following quotation:

> "The change of a major paradigm is a revolutionary process that brings about an entirely different worldview and a complete metamorphosis in the philosophy that underpins all human activity" (Van Straaten, in Singh and Manser 200:110).

Research points to the notion that implementing a novel curriculum which requires a different way of teaching and learning, demands the development of staff. This development should include getting educators to think about and reflect on the novel teaching/learning process in order to make the paradigm shift from teaching to learning and to motivate them and provide support so as to better prepare educators for adoption of an innovation. For example, Gravett and Petersen (2000:31) report on academic staff development for nursing educators who were responsible for implementation of a new first year outcomes-based curriculum in nursing colleges in Gauteng.

The focus of their workshop was on critical reflection and dialogue about their teaching practice in order that educators develop their own assumptions and meanings about learning and knowledge since this would have a direct impact on their teaching practice, which in turn will influence the knowledge that students construct. In open ended questionnaires completed after the workshop, it was revealed that the majority of participants had never intentionally reflected on their teaching practice and most lacked self knowledge (Gravett and Petersen 2000:32-33). Other staff developers (Imenda 1991:15) also stress the significance of having staff discuss issues pertaining to their work, as this is an effective way of causing attitudinal changes and enhancement of skills.

It emerged from the Gravett and Petersen (2000:33) study that participants regarded the workshops as valuable and felt that it had been "positive and stimulating and it actually made them think about what they were doing". Along with this positive attitude, though, was the perception that OBE and its accompanying way of facilitating (instead of transmitting content) was daunting. Some educators assumed that facilitating meant that students had to take total responsibility for learning, precluding educators from giving direction through lectures and explanations.

Thus, educators would need to understand what "self-directed" learning actually entails and how to implement it in practice. Further, central to OBE is the role of the facilitator and concepts like facilitation would need to be elucidated through specific examples so that educators will have a clearer view of their tasks and functions. Without this knowledge and understanding they might attach their own uninformed opinions about what their new role entails and this could cause a great deal of frustration and resentment towards educational change. Therefore, staff development to alleviate these problems, is essential.

In referring to resource-based learning and the shift to facilitation from didactic teaching, Holthausen (1998:33) cites that facilitators might feel uneasy about their new experience as the "managers of knowledge" which is why, in order to continue with quality and cost-effective programmes, staff will need to be developed. Facilitators will have to do in-depth introspection to investigate if they are ready for the adoption of innovation and its consequences, given that such change is a complex and sudden process and demands internal and external change by facilitators. Thus, apart from the cognitive aspects of facilitation, the psychological functioning of facilitators is emphasized by Holthauzen (1998:33-34). In this regard, Holthauzen (1998:36) suggests that by using the "stages of concern questionnaire" developed by Hall and Rutherford (in Holthauzen 1998:35), the internal change processes of facilitators could be addressed and strategies could be identified to help them cope better. For example, the "stages of concern" would highlight areas to be developed like changing negative attitudes and getting more involved and personally committed with an innovation as well as improving interpersonal skills and cooperation.

Moreover, Muller and de Kock (2001:213) assert that in aiming to implement cross-curricula, holistic and relevant learning, there is a dilemma of developing facilitators who can achieve this demanding level of educational knowledge and teaching skills. Hence, they suggest that educational programmes for educators will needs to be significantly "enriched" if not "totally reconceptualised and transformed". Muller and de Kock (2001:213-215) argue further that the present system of educator training is focused heavily on segregated disciplines of knowledge of theoretical and practical learning and of the acquisition of knowledge and skills and does not emanate in "holistic, integrated, meaningful education for the educator. Facilitators need "understanding, vision and wisdom". They need to be educated and not simply taught or trained. As Venter (2000:68) notes: "Knowledge alone is not always sufficient in innovative situations where teachers are required to critically re-evaluate what they are doing".

To this end, four broad categories of facilitator development are presented by Muller and deKock (2001:214-215), namely, knowledge, skills, imagination and self. They maintain that personal development to enhance self-knowledge, to evaluate, confirm or reconceptualise attitudes, values and ethics, demands attention. The facilitator needs to develop a vision and a mission for a future in education. Moreover, for many years education for educators was geared to passive and left brain orientated learning. In the new paradigm educators will need more exposure to right brain learning, bringing the "heart, mind and body in closer cooperation" (Muller and De Kock 2001:215).

A concluding analysis concerning the literature on facilitation is that educators will need immense support (both cognitive and affective) in coping with change and in performing their professional tasks effectively. It is not merely the instructional style accompanying an innovation that should to be taught, but educators would need to learn how to manage themselves mentally and emotionally as well. Failing this, any innovation no matter how well designed and potentially effective would be useless.

A final concluding point needs emphasis. There is a dearth of empirical studies in the literature regarding curricula innovations and staff development at tertiary level in South Africa. Most reports are based on research done at school level (for example the investigations of Singh and Manser 2000:108-113, Nakabugo and Sieborger 2001:55-59 and LeGrange and Reddy 2000:22-23). This could easily be translated into the assumption that not much is happening in the area of academic staff development despite the profound educational changes that are occurring. Either that or people are just not publishing enough in this field. This helps to reiterate the importance of this study and *why* staff development needs to be conducted in the first place.

In the following subsection (3.2.5), an overview is given of some problems facing educators at tertiary level, namely inadequate formal educational training and the heightened dilemma of being a newly hired faculty member and why appropriate support to alleviate these problems through staff development is necessary.

3.2.5 Some constraints faced by academic staff and implications for staff development

Perhaps the most pressing problems faced by academics must be those relating to the teaching/learning process considering that they have not been formally trained as educators. Moreover, being a newly hired employee comes with additional problems of adjustment and balancing research and tasks pertaining to educating. As is unveiled in subsections 3.2.5.1 and 3.2.5.2, addressing these constraints can readily form part of the agenda of a staff development programme.

3.2.5.1 Lack of formal training

This problem of lack of formal educational training was explicated in subsection 1.2.3, but for greater clarity, consistency and closure, it is expanded upon in this chapter.

It is common knowledge that educators are required to assume new academic duties for which they have received no formal training. To validate this point, Wilkerson and Irby (1998:388) report on a study in which most medical school faculty members reported having received no formal preparation as teachers. Their primary source of knowledge about teaching had been the observation of their teachers. There is a great possibility that left to their own devices, educators might gravitate towards using teaching methods that they've used in the past, namely traditional methods like lectures. To paraphrase Mennin and Kaufman (1989:10):

> "The status quo predominates in medical education: faculty who were once students in the same (mainly traditional) system have been socialized to believe in and support that system. The traditional methods are viewed as sacred. Innovations that threaten established methods may be viewed with skepticism."

Additionally, although a PhD is a fairly reliable index of academic competence, the degree alone does not ensure an ability to teach. As a result, medical educators, for example, are often not adequately prepared to communicate efficiently their scientific expertise in the classroom situation (Prentice and Metcalf (1974:1031). Therefore, a challenge for institutions is to help faculty pay attention to their

role as scholars and to reinforce the academic side. Attention must be given to adequate orientation for new faculty and the ongoing professional socialization, acculturation and development of all faculty. This, however, must be done against the backdrop of the new environment –not the old (Evans (1997:479). In addition, there is a stronger presumption that faculty are expected to be professionally competent throughout their careers through continuing professional growth and development (Nieman et al. 1997:497).

A case in point is a teaching workshop which was designed by Prentice and Metcalf (1974:1031) to provide participants an opportunity to improve the quality of their teaching skills. These authors explain that at most medical schools there is a need for teacher training courses designed specifically for medical educators so that quality medical education at the basic science and clinical levels is attainable.

Educators in higher education are not normally recruited from those who have trained in teaching methods and thus, development of educational technology skills should start from scratch after recruitment (Main, 1985:11). Harding et al. (in Main, 1985:11) suggest the following purposes of faculty development:

- To assist individuals and institutions to relate more effectively to social needs and aspirations.
- To create conditions conducive to maintaining the commitment of staff towards achieving the aims of the institution.
- To sustain motivation in teaching, advance knowledge and perform administrative duties.
- To assist in harmonizing individual and institutional goals.

Harding et al. (in Main 1985:11) suggest that these have to be seen in the context of the aims of education, the professional responsibilities placed on staff and the nature of institutional change.

When faced with the problem that most academic staff lack formal education training, a dilemma is finding a solution. Should academic staff at tertiary institutions be required to possess a teaching qualification or would staff development programmes be adequate to prepare them for their duties? An examination of the UK experience and the research findings of Luby (1999:216-223) help to answer this question and to determine how these findings could impact on academic staff development planning at MEDUNSA.

In the UK, one of the outcomes of globalization and increasing competition between higher education institutions has been a proactive move towards the accreditation of teaching in higher education (Luby

1999:216). This may sound educationally acceptable in theory but what are the opinions of academics regarding this compulsory accreditation of training for teaching in higher education? Luby (1999:217) writes that the debate around accreditation centers on the notion that many academic staff are resentful of the implication that they need to prove their competence to teach in higher education, creating a negative atmosphere. Luby (1999:217) reports that staff argue that teaching should be seen as *one* of the academic practices and that high quality staff development should be provided for academics in *all* practices, namely research, scholarship, consultancy and teaching.

To determine empirically the viewpoints of academics on the accreditation of teaching issue and their perceptions towards staff development, a survey was undertaken involving 391 members of academic staff within 15 Scottish HEIs. It was found that there was an willingness among staff to improve standards of teaching and learning especially when their autonomy was respected and they were encouraged to work in partnerships. They welcomed opportunities to network with colleagues and appreciated being introduced to new knowledge and skills. They also valued the chance to reflect on their own practice. They perceived accredited staff development as being valuable to both new entrants to academia as well as mid-career staff who may need to update and refresh their knowledge and skills. Nevertheless, the majority of academics in the study did not want a higher education teaching qualification but "desire and will respond to career-long, high quality staff development that incorporates research and scholarship as well as teaching" (Luby 1999: 219-221).

What the Luby study shows is that academic staff could become resentful if they are forced to study for a teaching qualification and have opted for staff development instead, provided that it covers all aspects of an academic's tasks. This is an important consideration for staff development at MEDUNSA, that is, staff development programmes should be balanced towards holistic development and not skewed in the direction of teaching and learning only. Another lesson is that the views of academic staff should be listened to and as far as possible, responded to accordingly.

In tertiary institutions, academic staff are expected to learn on the job and no concessions are made for inexperienced employees or those wanting to improve their teaching skills. Fuelling this problem is that incoming, new staff members have the same duties as experienced colleagues and are expected to participate immediately in the departmental teaching and research programme (Wilson, in Moses 1988:193). In subsection 3.2.5.2 a more detailed account of the constraints encountered by newly hired faculty is presented and avenues for staff development, discussed.

3.2.5.2 Problems encountered by new faculty

During the initial years of faculty appointment, new faculty must make sense of organizational structures and values including campus culture as well as decipher expectations for performance and advancement. They must also establish synergy between complex and sometimes conflicting roles and responsibilities. The ability of new faculty to cope during these early years is crucial to their success in and satisfaction with an academic career. Therefore, providing support to these individuals may be critical to the future success and viability of the institution (Sorcinelli 1994:474). Unfortunately, there is a tendency for institutions to let new faculty "sink or swim" on their own (Boice 1991:173).

New faculty arrive on campus with enthusiasm and optimism about opportunity for advancement in their careers. As time goes on, they report a lower level of work satisfaction and a higher level of work related stress (Sorcinelli 1994:474). Why is this so? In a longitudinal study, Sorcinelli (1994:474) found that the proportion of new comers who reported their work-life as very stressful rose dramatically- from 33% in the first year to 49% in the third year, to 71% in the fifth year. Factors that caused faculty the most stress included: time constraints in research and teaching, lack of collegial relations, inadequate feedback, recognition and reward, unrealistic expectations, insufficient resources and lack of balance between work and personal life. Moreover, Sorcinelli (1994:475) reports that difficulties in balancing new research and teaching responsibilities nearly always head the list of complaints in such studies.

Unsurprisingly, in the Sorcinelli (1994:476-478) investigation, it was unearthed that for many new recruits an emphasis on conducting research and publishing/presenting research papers was perceived as highly important. This has to be balanced with teaching responsibilities as new faculty spend a lot of time worrying about how best to teach, what to teach and how to motivate students. Thus, new recruits will need support for both research and teaching, and institutions have a responsibility to nurture and aid the scholarship of teaching and research and their developing faculty.

For example, the literature shows that for research productivity to increase in newly hired faculty, there needs to exist a high degree of perceived control by new faculty and a strong emphasis on research by the institution concerned. A case in point is the two year longitudinal study described by Perry, Clifton, Menec, Struthers and Menges (2000:173-188) of recently appointed faculty members from five United states institutions. Findings were to the effect that most of the new hire's time was absorbed with teaching and research rather than being solely interested in teaching. A correlation was made that the research productivity of newly hired faculty increased progressively because of institutional emphasis on research. It was concluded that research orientated institutions not only

appear to recruit faculty with certain control profiles but also create environments that promote such dispositions. Considering that there is literature evidence to the effect that in South Africa there is a lack of research at historically black universities (Gultig 2000:45 and Department of Education 1996:13), creating an environment that encourages and promotes research is an important consideration for staff development at MEDUNSA.

In continuation, other complaints of newly hired faculty are those of feelings of loneliness, isolation, lack of social and intellectual stimulation and insufficient support from senior faculty members (Boice, Fink and Sorcinelli, in Sorcinelli 1994:475). Indeed, new faculty reported a lack of collegial relations as the most surprising and disappointing aspect of their first year (Sorcinelli 1994:475). Women and minorities in particular described feelings of personal isolation and yearned for someone who could help them (Boice and Sorcinelli, in Sorcinelli 1994:475).

Therefore, a great deal can be done in the area of new faculty development. Sorcinelli (1994:477) purports that new faculty endorse programmes that will contribute to their development as scholars and teachers. They also favour programmes that would introduce them to campus colleagues and resources, namely mentoring programmes, orientation activities and workshops on teaching. On the other hand, Boice (1991:170) found in a longitudinal study of new faculty experiences that when new faculty begin as educators they are passive about change and improvements and seldom seek help from sources, including faculty development programmes.

According to this author, these conflicting claims should be taken cognisance of in the planning of staff development programmes. Perhaps an aggressive marketing strategy for staff development programmes that are aimed at developing newly hired faculty would be beneficial in generating interest and encouraging participation.

In the subsection that follows, an overview is presented of another factor that deserves attention in staff development and that is the employer/employee relationship. People need to be made aware of the organisation's missions and expectations while organisations need to acknowledge the importance of updating/upgrading the skills and knowledge of their employees if both parties are to survive in a complex, changing society.

3.2.6 The employer/employee relationship

Every organisation must define and affirm what they stand for and what they must value in order to attract the right people to do the right work in the correct way over a period of time (Brightman and Moran 2001:252). At the same time, those organisations that help their employees cope effectively at

work and re-engineer the workplace to better suit their aptitudes and aspirations will be most successful in increasing productivity and commitment to success (United Nations World Labour Report, in Brightman and Moran 2001:244).

An article in the Sunday Times (Gordon 2002:14) reinforces this assumption:

> "Employees are looking for more from their employees than a financial package. They want career-development and promotion opportunities and they want to be able to consistently develop their potential".

This realisation led to the emergence of the knowledge concept that re-evaluated the worth of a company based on expertise, networking and experience acquired on the job. Legislation such as the Skills Development Act and the NQF are initiatives to foster a culture of lifelong learning which employees and employers could support (Gordon 2002:14).

Horner (1995:7) stresses the importance of the relationship between the employer (organization) and the employee and the recognition by the former that an individual will need to acquire new knowledge and learn new skills as the organization changes. "An organization where nothing changes will be left behind in the marketplace and the employees are likely to become bored and/or complacent" (Horner 1995:20). Once people focus their efforts on satisfying an organisation's important stakeholders, many opportunities would present themselves for building a culture of commitment and participation throughout an organisation (Brightman and Moran 2001:251). Subsequently, organizations are realising that their survival depends on the commitment of their staff development programmes.

Moreover, staff development is a tool to facilitate a positive relationship between employer and employee and to provide a communication link. The employer can be kept informed of the needs of staff and of the organizational culture and climate and can use this information to anticipate the future development of staff. When the employer bestows respect and attention on employees, a significant impact can often be seen in the service that is provided (Horner 1995:17-18). The following quotation extrapolates further: "With a quality work-life, the employee is likely to make a commitment to the organization, its values and beliefs and will work to attain quality outcomes" (Horner 1995:20).

Another rationale for staff development is that organisational learning must be continuous: new people and technologies come on board and older employees can forget what they know. Training and education are central to helping citizens master a changing work environment. Organisations must invest in training and education in order to close the gap created by organisational change and to prevent resistance due to employees' fears of becoming obsolete (Brightman and Moran 2001:254).

In the new knowledge-based economy, it is very likely that only the smartest firms will survive. Therefore, investments in education and training must match the institution's knowledge needs (Burton-Jones 2001:229).

For instance, in a complex, knowledge-driven world, the awareness and need for life-long learning has often been highlighted:

> "The need for such an approach to learning is reinforced by the increasing challenge and uncertainty presented in individual jobs and in people's careers more generally, at a time when employment conditions are increasingly diverse and organisations and occupations are subject to rapid change" (The Harris Report in Luby 1999:216).

Further, providing professional development for academics can be viewed within the context of the higher education system as promoting lifelong learning for its staff in order that both the institution and its employees remain viable within a complex, changing environment (Luby 1999:216).

Therefore, what can be gleaned from the literature is that the individual, the organisation and staff development have to be intertwined and cannot be separated from each other- staff development acting as a "mediator" between the employee and employer, keeping the channels of communication open between the two. Figure 3.3 illustrates this relationship. When the performance of staff are improved through high quality staff development, it would result in greater productivity from which the organisation can reap the rewards which in turn would benefit staff.

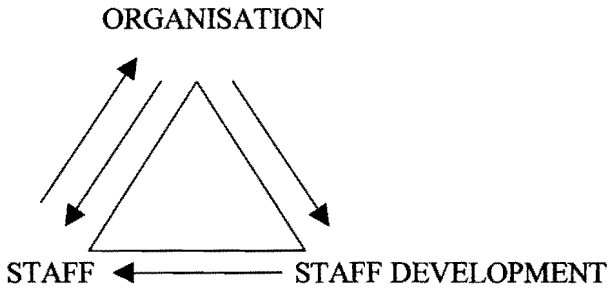

Figure 3.3: The relationship between staff, staff development and the organisation

A major concern for most tertiary institutions globally is the enhancement of quality because institutions have to be accountable to their stakeholders. Enhancing the quality of education, though, depends on improving academic excellence. More of this will be covered in paragraph 3.2.7.

3.2.7 The influence of quality on academic staff development

The concept of quality was introduced in chapter 2 (See subsection 2.7.1.4). In this subsection the impact of QA in higher education on the development of the academe receives attention.

3.2.7.1 Quality assurance and its impact on academic staff

Quality has become a buzzword in higher education worldwide mainly because of the emphasis on value for money- on greater accountability for the use of public funds. Brennan (1997:13-14) explains that the accountability role in quality assessment works in two ways. Firstly, by providing assurance to the principal stakeholder and funder (that is the state) that the quality of education justifies continued funding. This is linked to the process of accreditation. The second way is to provide comparative information to the clients of higher education so as to influence choices and decisions. For these reasons quality assessment bodies tend to have improvement as well as accountability goals. This is endorsed by Lomas and Tomlinson (2000:2) who reported that the mission statement of the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education in the UK is "to promote improvement in the quality and standards of higher education to meet the needs of students, employers and funders of higher education".

Moreover, with the attention towards quality has come a clearer recognition of the importance of the educating function as part of an academic's professional life (Fransman 2001:5). For example, following the recommendations of the Dearing Report in the UK, the UK government embarked on the establishment of the Institute of Learning and Technology with a view to (Dearing 1997:chapters 8,14):

1) Improving the status of teaching in higher education.
2) Improving the quality of learning and teaching.
3) Establishing and maintaining good standards and professional practice by its members.

Further, members of the Institute of Learning and Technology are expected to have knowledge and understanding of:

1) Content of the subject they will be teaching.
2) Appropriate methods of teaching and learning in that subject area.
3) Models of how students learn- both generically and in their subject.
4) The use of learning technologies appropriate to the context in which they teach.

5) Methods for monitoring and evaluating their own teaching.
6) The implications of QA for practice (Fransman 2001:6).

3.2.7.2 The link between scholarship and the quality of academics

On the issue of developing the status and quality of teaching, Healey (2000:176) quotes Gibbs as saying that "for every process that supports quality in research there is a parallel process that can be used to support quality in teaching". The essence behind this is that if teaching is to be taken as seriously as research, and to receive similar rewards, there is a need for it to be more public and open to evaluation by peers (Healey 2000:176).

To ensure quality in higher education, will the improvement of teaching ability alone result in improved quality or can quality also be effected through research efforts of staff? In other words, is there a connection between research productivity of staff and the quality of their teaching? There is much debate about this in the literature following empirical studies, with some refuting that there is a connection (Taylor 2001:55-56) and others agreeing that there definitely is a positive connection since students may benefit from staff being involved in research (Thomas and Harris 2000:139-146). Other investigators (Coate, Barnett and Williams 2001:158-174) have empirically determined that there is a range of relationships both positive and negative between teaching and research (see paragraph 3.3).

The debate in paragraph 3.3 is centred around scholarship and what it entails. Scholarship according to Boyer (in Healey 2000:169) is grounded in four aspects, two of which are teaching and research which are said to be overlapping and synergistically interlinked. This is not always the case though as departments and institutions perceive teaching and research as very separate activities (Coates et al. 2001:164). The dilemma is deciding what should be developed to ensure excellence of the academe, when staff development planning and implementation is to be initiated. Thus, we look at the issue of scholarship in greater detail to afford a clearer picture of what it is a staff developer should focus on. In this way the question of *what* should be developed will receive attention.

3.2.8 A synthesis of why staff development is necessary

Table 3.2 depicts a summary of the problems encountered by faculty in a postmodern, technological society experiencing accelerated change and innovation. These problems have been pinpointed by perusing the literature. While these trends and constraints may be evident at other institutions, it may well be that similar experiences predominate at MEDUNSA.

Table 3.2: A concise account of the common problems facing faculty

Cognitive constraints	Affective constraints
• Lack of formal training in educating. • Inexperience in the use of technology. • Lack of knowledge of novel methods of teaching/learning and assessment. • Coping with academic matters regarding educational transformation. • Balancing research and the task of educating. • Lack of institutional support regarding transformation. • Dealing with QA and accreditation.	• Lack of collegiality and loneliness. • Coping with the stress of change. • Difficulties in dealing with people who are different.

By identifying these problems, they not only highlight *why* staff development is necessary but would also serve to direct staff development strategies and programmes and in so doing would more effectively address the challenges that are commonly experienced by tertiary educators. Thus, staff development would act as an intervention in finding solutions to the cognitive and affective problems outlined in table 3.2, leading to enhanced quality in higher education through job satisfaction, enhanced knowledge and skills and improved educator performance by way of general improvement of academic excellence. The ultimate beneficiary of this developmental exercise would be society as a whole and not just educators and learners (see figure 3.4). When the requirements and aspirations of society are met at the level of tertiary education, it would lead to a more democratic order, and a more knowledgeable, technologically skilled, internationally competitive and civilized populace. Is this not what any government would want for its citizens? The minister of education (of South Africa) seems to think it is:

> "The education system is not just a vehicle for the transmission of knowledge…It is the social institution through which the principle values of our new nation, the key to our identity as South Africans, are conveyed to successive generations of learners" (Asmal 2000:5).

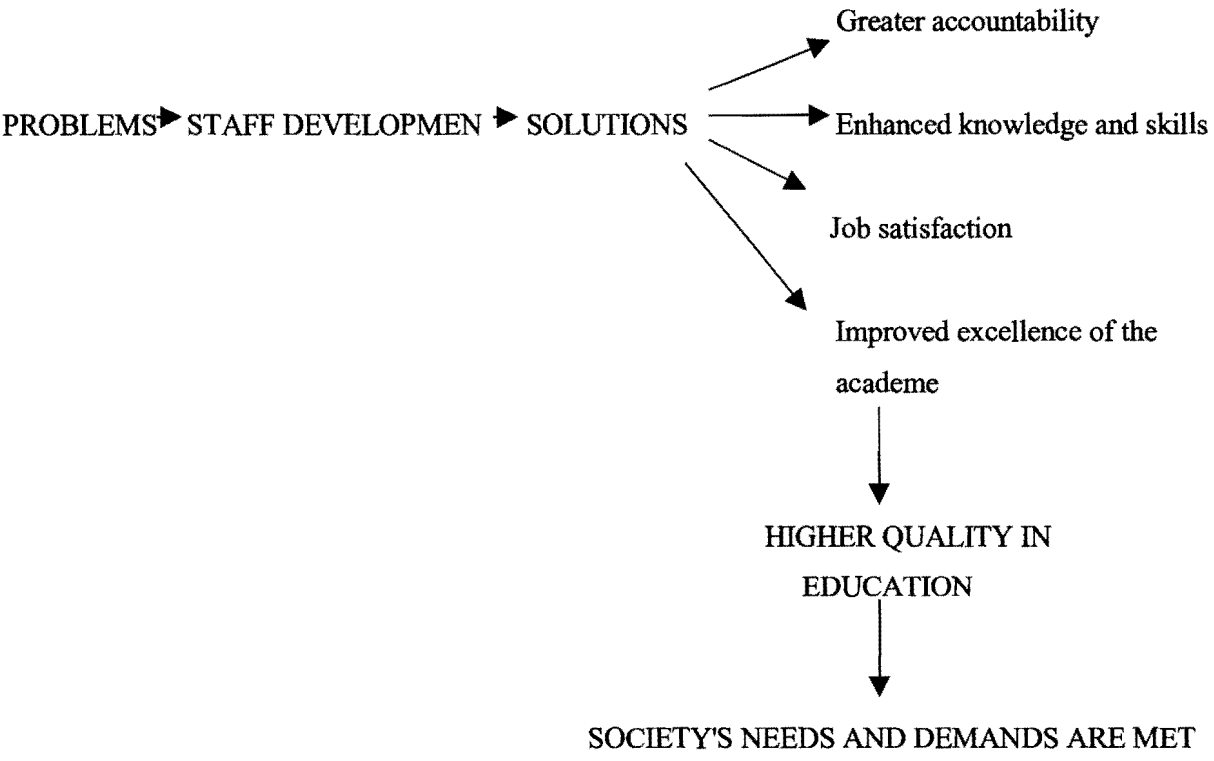

Figure 3.4: The outputs of staff development

3.3 What is to be developed?

The main functions of academics are teaching, research and community service. In this subsection, the concepts of scholarship in term of the two main functions of the academe, namely, teaching and research are discussed. Most clinicians and dentists at MEDUNSA who are involved in teaching, perform community service (that is the rendering of medical and dental service) as part of their teaching tasks.

3.3.1 The concept of scholarship

From the focus of quality of teaching and learning has arisen a slightly different agenda. This agenda focuses on teaching as scholarship. The starting point for this debate was Boyer's "scholarship reconsidered". Boyer's main thesis does not focus on teaching in isolation but on teaching as part of the larger whole of academic work. Boyer argues that we should nullify the old research versus teaching argument and concentrate on the idea that scholarship exists in all aspects of academic work (Trigwell, Martin, Benjamin and Prosser 2000:155).

3.3.1.1 The definition of scholarship

Hansen and Roberts (in Fincher, Simpson, Mennin, Rosenfeld, Rothman, McGrew, Hansen, Mazmanian and Turnbull 2000:888) argue that "scholarship is demonstrated when knowledge is advanced or transformed by application of one's intellect in an informed, disciplined and creative manner". Hutchings and Schulman (in Fincher et al. 2000:888), in focussing on teaching, argue that "teaching becomes scholarship when it demonstrates current knowledge of the field and current findings about teaching, invites peer review and involves exploration of students' learning". Essential hallmarks of teaching as scholarship include teaching being made public, being open to evaluation and being presented in a form that others can build on (Hutchings and Schulman in Fincher et al. 2000:888).

3.3.1.2 Boyer's categories of scholarship

The four different but overlapping categories of scholarship defined by Boyer (in Beattie 2000:873 and Trigwell et al. 2000:155) are tabulated in table 3.3.

These different approaches to scholarship do not imply that scholarship should be focussed in one area. A faculty member should be involved in more than one activity relating to the different areas. Each area of scholarship overlaps with one or more of the others (Beattie 2000:874).

Table 3.3: Boyer's categories of scholarship

Category	Definition
The scholarship of discovery (or original research):	Discovering new knowledge in the quest for deeper understanding of the world is crucial to the scholarly ambience of the university.
The scholarship of integration	This involves establishing connections between discoveries obtained by different approaches or even from varied disciplines and placing the specialities in larger context.
The scholarship of application	This involves "building bridges" between theory and practice and encompasses the service functions of academics. It relates to how knowledge can be used in a practical situation.
The scholarship of teaching	This involves communicating one's knowledge effectively to students. Knowledge gained through basic research, by integrating information from various disciplines or by applying novel techniques is meaningful only when it can be communicated and understood by others.

Interpreting Boyer's scholarship of discovery and relating it to medical schools, Beattie (2000:873) explains that increasing the scholarship of discovery among faculty involves research collaborations between basic and clinical scientists. These interactions are vital for translating the basic research that provides an understanding of the underlying causes and progression of disease into innovative clinical practice. This burst of knowledge of basic biological phenomena will pave the way for novel approaches to health care and will require continued emphasis on basic and clinical research.

3.3.1.3 The implications of the promotion of scholarship for staff development

One of the fundamental tasks of staff developers is to act as catalysts to stimulate various subject-specialists to think about, to converse about and to interpret new knowledge within the context of the university's mission. In this way, academic development would be contributing to Boyer's scholarship of integration in its attempt to make connections across the disciplines. In this sense, the developer acts as an integrator, serving as internal consultant to individuals and groups within the university (Badley 2001:5).

Staff developers may also be expected to contribute to the scholarship of application in which research knowledge is applied to andragogical problems. This would help ensure an interaction of theory and practice so that one can help renew the other. Additionally, staff developers can also promote Boyer's scholarship of teaching by encouraging their academic colleagues to research not just their own areas of subject specialisation but also the teaching/learning process (Badley 2001:5).

3.3.1.4 The scholarship of teaching

Glassick (2000:879) argues that while the adoption and evaluation of the scholarship of discovery, integration and application are proceeding well at most tertiary institutions, the scholarship of teaching "remains elusive". In fact from the outset the precise vocabulary to describe the scholarship of teaching was elusive as faculty tried to differentiate good teaching from the scholarship of teaching. Coming to the rescue, Shulman (in Glassick 2000:879) offered the following criteria that must be met for work to be scholarship:

1) The work must be made public.
2) The work must be available for peer review and critique according to accepted standards.
3) The work must be reproducible and capable of being built on by other scholars.

In describing teaching as community property, Shulman (in Trigwell et al. 2000:156) sees communication as a key element. He describes the life of scholars as being members of active communities: communities of conversation, communities of evaluation, communities that gather to exchange findings, methods and excuses. Another element of scholarship is that scholarship "entails an artefact, a product, some form of community property than can be shared, discussed, critiqued, exchanged, built on". Following from this, he sees peer review as the third element.

Still, a broadly acceptable definition of the scholarship of teaching and learning is yet to be decided upon (Glassick 2000:880). From a perusal of the publications on the subject, Trigwell et al. 2000:156) concludes that there are enormous variations in the way scholarship of teaching is represented. For Trigwell et al. 2000:156) the aim of scholarly teaching is simple: "It is to make transparent how we have made learning possible". For this to happen, university educators must be informed of the theoretical perspectives and literature on teaching and learning in their particular disciplines. They should be able to collect and present rigorous evidence of their effectiveness from these perspectives as educators. This in turn involves reflection, inquiry, evaluation, documentation and communication. This model of the scholarship of teaching offers a framework for elucidating the process of making learning possible.

Trigwell et al. (2000:158-168) describe the results of an empirical study undertaken to determine the extent of the variation in approaches to the scholarship of teaching. It involved 20 staff with major teaching responsibilities in three different faculties at an Australian university. The purpose of the interview was to make explicit the essence of that which is being thought about to determine how academics think about and make sense of the scholarship of teaching.

An analysis of the data collected resulted in five categories of description of approach to the scholarship of teaching, shown in table 3.4. The categories are hierarchical with higher order categories (namely C,D,E) incorporating the lower ones (namely A,B).

Table 3.4: The scholarship of teaching (Adapted from Trigwell et al. 2000:159-160).

Category	Approach to the scholarship of teaching
A	Knowing the literature on teaching by collecting and reading that literature.
B	Improving teaching by collecting and reading the literature on teaching. The intention is not only to know the literature but to use it to improve teaching.
C	Improving student learning by investigating the learning of one's own students and one's own teaching. The intention is to go beyond improving teaching to improving student learning.
D	Improving one's own students' learning by knowing and relating the literature on teaching and learning to discipline specific literature and knowledge. The intention is to attend to two lots of literature- that within the discipline and that on teaching and learning, and to relate them to one another.
E	Improving student learning within the discipline generally, by collecting and communicating results of one's own work on teaching and learning within the discipline. The intention is to communicate one's own work to a larger audience.

3.3.1.5 Research and teaching: The debate about the relationship between the two activities

A case study was undertaken by Thomas and Harris (2000:139-146) at the school of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Metropolitan University in the U.K. The research aims were two fold. The first aim was to ascertain the knowledge and attitudes of students (level one to masters level) regarding staff research. The second aim was to identify staff (n=42) attitudes towards potential connections between teaching quality and research (Thomas and Harris 2000:142).

The responses received from staff emphasised two elements, namely, personal development (mainly intrinsic rewards) and ensuring current knowledge for teaching purposes. A prominent theme was that research offered the opportunity for intellectual stimulation that enhanced job satisfaction. Other benefits of doing research included credibility in front of student and outside agencies and the commercial potential that research offered. The disadvantages of being involved in research were commented upon by some who felt that active researchers are often unavailable to students and that research causes staff to lose focus on the fact that they are employed to teach (Thomas and Harris 2000:143).

The attitude of students varied according to the level of the course. Masters students were most aware of staff research and considered their engagement in research to be beneficial. These students had more confidence in their tutors whom they saw as displaying more enthusiasm about the subject. (Compare this finding to the one made by Coate et al. 2001:167, discussed later in this subsection, that the positive influence that research can have on teaching is most direct in the final year of

undergraduate teaching and at postgraduate levels in Chemistry and Engineering). Level one students were least aware of staff activities but said they would be impressed and would have more confidence in their tutors if they knew their tutors were publishing (Thomas and Harris 2000:143).

Thomas and Harris (2000:144) concluded from their study that there are benefits to students if staff are engaged in research:

> "Staff not only develop skills and acquire knowledge as a result of engaging in research, they also gain intrinsic rewards and therefore, retain enthusiasm. These factors combined with other skills of pedagogy provide a blend which according to students is conducive to good education" (Thomas and Harris 2000:143).

In an attempt to qualify their conclusion, Thomas and Harris (2000:144), point out that their results do not necessarily indicate a relationship between good research and good teaching. The skills required for good research are not necessarily the same as for effective teaching. Rather, good educators engaging in research are likely to enhance the student experience.

In this writer's estimation, this is an important clarification by Thomas and Harris (2000:144) since their study does not provide enough conclusive evidence that quality in teaching had been effected through the research efforts of academics. Their empirical methods involved completing questionnaires aimed at determining the attitudes of staff and students. Data on actual student performance was not collected. Also, there was no mention of the skills and knowledge the researchers should have imparted to their students to make them more employable in a changing technological society which would improve the quality of their education. As Coate et al. (2001:159) note, however, it is difficult to find reliable and valid measures of teaching and research performance which can be satisfactorily compared with each other.

Interestingly, in an empirical study conducted at four Australian universities to determine academics' approaches towards teaching and research as a result of performance indicators, academics admitted that their teaching had deteriorated because of their focus on research (Taylor 2001:56). More time devoted to research meant less time for teaching or preparing teaching materials. Most participants in the Taylor (2001:53) study admitted to a shift from teaching towards research because of the rewards attached as is evident in this comment: "There's more and more pressure to get involved in research because you're not going to get any promotional development unless you do it". As a result of this pressure to do research and publish, even the quality of research undertaken by the participants was comprised and questionable as they opted for a larger number of shorter papers and publishing in less prestigious journals (Taylor 2001:52).

Taylor (2001:56) warns that any fall in the quality of teaching and research of an institution would be disastrous for the long-term reputation and even survival of the institution. The reputation of a university lies in the quality of its outputs whether it is teaching or research. Reputation is important as it influences the ability of the institution to attract students and a decline in the quality of teaching and or research might be a mitigating factor in the drop in student numbers- at great cost to the university. At national level, a drop in the quality of teaching and research of higher education institutions would have huge ramifications for the macro-environment, especially the economy (Taylor 2001:56), for example, "poor teaching quality can lead to a less knowledgeable pool of university graduates who will be less productive, resulting in lower economic growth" (Lucas and Romer, in Taylor 2001:57).

In addition, although there is much dialogue about the overlap between teaching/learning and research, and even synergy, the day-to day management of academic departments are often based on systems that treat teaching/learning and research as distinct activities. In the midst of limited resources, this can result in competition rather than synergy between the two activities. One way forward could be to implement explicit management strategies that forge teaching/learning and research which would encourage academics to integrate the two (Coate et al. 2001:172.

Research conducted by Coate et al. (2001:158-174) as part of the Higher Education Funding Council for England's fundamental review of research policy and funding, indicated that there are a range of relationships- both positive and negative between teaching and research. Eight higher education institutions, ranging from high teaching and low research institutions to high research and relatively low teaching institutions, were involved in the study. Visits made to departments consisted of semi-structured interviews with HODs followed by a focus group with members of academic staff in that department. The primary aims of the project were focussed on analysing the relationships between teaching and research through the perspectives of HODs, academic staff and students in various departments, namely History, Chemistry, Engineering and Business Studies (Coate et al. 2001:160).

From the data gathered, Coate and colleagues (2001:164) identified six possible relationships between teaching and research.

Table 3.5: The relationship between teaching and research (Adapted from Coate et al. 2001:165)

Relationship	Rationale
Teaching and research are integrated.	Supervision of postgraduates demonstrates this.
Research has a positive influence on teaching.	Staff involved in research have more relevant, up to date knowledge and enthusiasm for the subject.
Teaching has a positive influence on research.	Teaching in relatively new areas leads to new ideas for research.
An independent relationship exists between teaching and research.	Research and teaching have little impact on each other.
Research has a negative influence on teaching.	Staff spend less time with students. There are more resources for research.
Teaching has a negative influence on research.	Administration work in teaching has increased because of a high student: staff ratio.

Healey (2000:170) argues that if the scholarship of teaching is to match that of research, there needs to be a comparability of rigour, standards and esteem and also that the key to developing a scholarly approach is to link the process explicitly to the discipline. What is it that needs to be done to develop the scholarship of teaching in higher education through the disciplines? Healey (2000:175) answers this question by stating that a scholarly approach to teaching would involve becoming familiar with the literature on teaching/learning and acting on its findings. This should at the very least entail reflecting on the theory and practice of educating applied to one's discipline. Even when running workshops on a form of educating common in virtually all disciplines, having discipline-based examples makes it more relevant to the participants and more likely that the ideas will be adopted.

Encompassing technology, Healey (2000:182) refers to the role of discipline networks in developing the scholarship of teaching in higher education:

> "Links to related subject networks are important not only because many of the ideas discussed are transferable, but also because there is a need to address the issues faced by discipline specialists working in the interdisciplinary centres" (Healey 2000:182).

Healey (2000:183) maintains that discipline-based education networks have an important role to play in enhancing communication and encouraging tertiary educators to develop a scholarly approach to the way they teach and the way they research and write about their teaching and their students' learning. Good teaching like good research is multi-dimensional, difficult and contextual.

3.3.1.6 Personal views on the scholarship of teaching

In the estimation of this writer, the scholarship in teaching is essentially dialogue with:

1) Subject matter
2) Students
3) Colleagues
4) Yourself (see figure 3.5).

Dialogue implies a two way process. For example, dialogue with the subject matter would mean taking from the literature to enrich one's own knowledge bank and this wealth of knowledge would be shared with students. At the same time educators should engage in research to create new knowledge which should be shared with others. Also, engaging in dialogue with students would mean not only helping students learn but learning from students. Furthermore, educators should bring their own unique style and talents to the fore and use that to communicate effectively with students. This could be used as a nucleus around which student learning will be built. Dialogue with students will include consultation outside the classroom; being a guide and giving andragogical support. Thereafter, there should be a focus on making students independent learners, weaning them off slowly.

A dialogue with colleagues would entail interacting with colleagues through workshops, seminars and conferences and not just in corridors and tearooms. Thus, sharing of knowledge with colleagues is important- giving one's views in exchange for theirs. This type of interaction could also be therapeutic and mutually supportive and help to avoid the insularity that exists among many academics. Finally, engaging in dialogue with oneself involves adopting a reflective approach, incorporating all three entities for the improvement of teaching/learning and the enhancement of personal development- to see one's limitations and how one can improve.

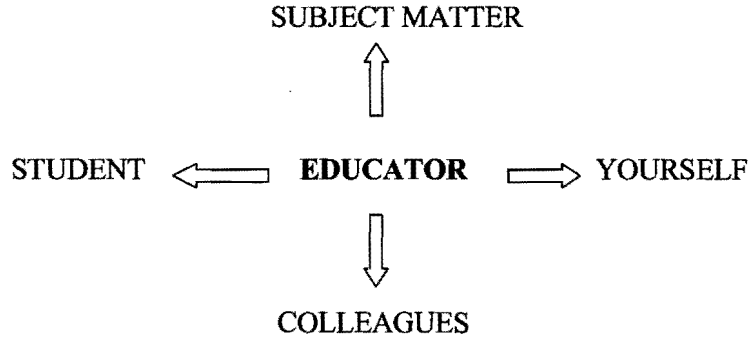

Figure 3.5: A model for the scholarship of teaching

3.4 Models and Strategies for staff development, mainly in higher education

A repertoire of models have been decanted from the literature to. The models chosen have various themes and principles to give a global perspective of the various approaches to staff development. Strategies and methods used in effecting staff development are also covered here.

3.4.1 Models of staff development

Programme developers need to be familiar with existing models of staff development to determine how these models can be modified and combined to serve specific needs. Most of the staff development models discussed here pertain to staff development at higher education level. The exceptions are the job-embedded model (Wood and Killian 1998:52), the problem-based learning model (Seifert and Simmons, in Zepeda 1999:101) and the career lattice model (McDonnell and Christensen 1990:123-124) which relate to staff development at school level. The reason they have been included is that the adoption of their principles could be valuable in the development of academic staff at tertiary level.

3.4.1.1 A categorization of micro and macro models

The micro models for staff development in higher education described by Rutherford (1982: 184-186) are orientated towards product, prescription, process or problem. In the product-orientated model, academic staff identify a specific need and exploit the expertise of the staff developer to satisfy that need. The staff developer may suggest an immediate solution or give alternatives from which staff can choose. The prescription-orientated model involves the diagnosing of problems by the staff developer who acts on the feeling that "something is wrong", and the subsequent prescription of remedies (Rutherford:1982:184).

In Rutherford's (1982:185) process-orientated model, the staff developer is a "process consultant" whose task is to help academic staff diagnose problems and to provide skills and resources to help them solve the problem. S/he does not work on the problem him/herself. The emphasis is on developing the personal and professional qualities of individuals through workshops, discussion groups, seminars etc. The problem-orientated model pertains to the staff developer supporting academic staff to resolve problems within the context of the institution.

Rutherford (1982:186) recognizes that no single strategy will be effective in such a complex and diverse area as university teaching. Thus, a strategy that encompasses the following three concepts, was recommended:

1) An appreciation of social and organizational factors which determine the attitudes and actions of staff.
2) A commitment to a working party approach as regards organizing staff development programmes.
3) A supportive role for the full-time staff developer which places him in partnership with academic staff, that is, a colleague rather than an expert.

A criticism of these micro models is that the product-orientated model is weak in that problems are superficially analyzed and can result in inappropriate solutions. The prescription-orientated model does not allow for a collaborative relationship between staff developer and academic staff. The process-orientated model is weak because of its heavy emphasis on personal and individual considerations, thus neglecting the institution (Smith (1992:42).

Another fourfold categorization of micro models in higher education is suggested by Harding et al., (in Smith 1992:41). They are the medical model, the public health model, athletic model and the authoritarian model. The medical model involves giving private and confidential help by the staff developer to those staff who ask for it. The public health model focuses on the importance of upholding environmental factors such as rewards, recognition and management style in staff development. The athletic model emphasizes self-development through individual initiative, for example by achieving improvement through evaluation of past teaching performance. The authoritarian model suggests that the staff developer prescribes institutional objectives which participants are required to achieve, for example through compulsory training courses.

Boud and McDonald (in Smith 1992:42), describe three micro-models pertaining to staff development in higher education: the professional service model, the counseling model and the collegial model. In the first model, the staff developer uses his organizational and technical expertise to tackle a problem that has been brought up by the client. In the second model the focus is on the resources of the teacher rather than the expertise of the councilor. In the last model, the staff developer engages in joint research activity with colleagues for which there is a combined responsibility and a mutually beneficial outcome.

Boud and McDonald (in Smith 1992:43) assert that following one model only by staff developers is inadequate and limiting. They advise that an eclectic model should be adopted instead as it would allow for flexibility and an appropriate response to the demands of each unique situation. Therefore,

a versatility of approach with the capacity to apply all the models would be preferable. In this type of model, the staff developer is characterized as one who has respect for colleagues for whom s/he is a consultant; has good negotiating skills and can employ a range of strategies to achieve goals.

Yorke (in Smith 1992:44) refer to their macro models in higher education as management, shop floor and partnership. The management model pertains to the initiation of a staff development activity to meet institutional needs as perceived by management. Training courses are organized to achieve standards that have been set by management. This model is limiting in the sense that it disregards the perceptions and needs of staff. The shop-floor model implies that staff identify their needs and propose action to meet them. It assumes that staff are fully capable of identifying their professional needs and taking measures to meet them. The partnership model recognizes that the interests between the individual would be different and that this divergence can be reconciled through effective staff development.

Smith (1992:46) advises that the micro and macro models can be operated in combination with each other. For example, the product and prescription model would work well within the management model because of the instructional or directive role invoked by these models. The process and collegial model would be more compatible within the shop-floor model because of the fair and equal relationships that are encouraged. The combined eclectic/partnership model favors the reconciliation of diverse interests and versatility of practice and is endorsed by Tavistock (in Smith, 1992:46). Smith (1992:46) claims that of the micro and macro models discussed, the eclectic/partnership model has the greatest merit and presents the most promising approach to staff development.

Table 3.6: A summary of micro- and macro models of staff development

Micro-models	• Rutherford's product-orientated, prescription-orientated, process-orientated and problem-orientated model (Rutherford 1982:184-186). • Harding et al's (in Smith 1992:41) medical, public health, athletic and authoritarian model. • Boud's and McDonald's (in Smith 1992:42) professional service, counseling and collegial model.
Macro-models	• Yorke's (in Smith 1992:44) management, shop floor and partnership models.

3.4.1.2 The input, process, output model

The aforementioned model was designed for professional staff development of nursing staff and consists of three phases: input, process and output (Tobin et al. (1979:11-14). Input factors refer to

what is "given" in the process and relate to the organization, health care and the individual. For example, resources available should be taken cognizance of in order to obtain realistic objectives and learning experiences. Also, learner profiles would identify characteristics, learning styles, goals and needs. "Needs" are important to the development of the process as they would help determine learning content of the programme. Each of the input factors influences a "need".

In the process phase, climate setting is important. In planning, the climate must be considered in order to identify needs and to design a plan to meet those needs. In implementation, climate setting is also important to establish the most conducive atmosphere for learning. The planning phase represents the organization and administration of the staff development effort (Tobin et al. 1979:11). Once "needs" are identified, they are translated into general and specific objectives which will guide the development of a learning experience and establish an evaluation method. Well-defined objectives will facilitate the evaluation process and specific content topics can be derived from the objectives. Tobin et al. (1979:12) advise that adult learning theories should be considered in defining topics. A programme plan should be drawn up at this stage to help describe how objectives are going to be met.

The output phase encompasses implementation and evaluation of the staff development effort. Output is demonstrated in performance behaviors. If no change is seen or if the change is undesirable, there would probably have been a mistake in determining input or in using the process (Tobin et al. 1979:14).

3.4.1.3 The developmental and personal growth models

Kent (in Tobin et al 1979:117) describes a model with an emphasis on a developmental approach. The developmental levels are referred to as:

1) Individual needs assessment.
2) Individual growth.
3) Promoting growth of self and others.
4) Expansion of professional competence and continuing education.

Specific learning activities are defined for each level and self-directed learning used throughout the experiences. This approach enhances professional growth and development with a focus on self-directed learning. Moreover, the focus is on the person and not on the programme.

The personal growth model described by Main (1985:92) is characterized by acceptance of and respect for the whole person and not simply an interest in their capacity to improve their professional performance. He believes that it is learners (not organizers) who set the pattern for what must be achieved by an educational situation. This superimposes well with a growing humanistic person-centered movement in adult education which recognizes the needs, aspirations, motivation and capacities of individuals. As Carl Rogers would put it, the idea is one of facilitation of learning and not control thereof (Main 1985:90). Educators learn in order to satisfy needs they identify. They learn best when they have exercised freedom of choice and when outside agents help by facilitating rather than manipulating (Main 1985:92).

A humanistic approach to learning, when applied to staff development could encompass the following:

1) Employing self-directed learning and learning from peers.
2) Practicing newly acquired skills in simulated settings.
3) Incorporating opportunities to learn from one-to-one relationships as well as group work.
4) Concentration on tasks directly related to the adult learner's work (Doll, in Main 1985:91).

3.4.1.4 The Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation and Maintenance (RPTIM) model

Wood, Thompson and Russell (1981:63) describe a model for in-service education as having five stages, as tabulated in table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Stages in the RPTIM model

Stages	Modus operandi
1. Readiness	The climate for change is created and channels of communication are open to mobilize support. Specific programmes, processes and procedures are selected.
2. Planning	Goals and objectives are identified. A needs assessment is conducted and a draft design of the training and implementation stages is drawn up.
3. Training	Knowledge, skills and attitudes are imparted through workshops, sabbaticals etcetera.
4. Implementation	Educators apply what is learnt in staff development programmes to the work situation. As educators use new teaching/learning methods they may need to modify what they have learnt to fit the new situation.
5. Maintenance	Monitoring helps determines if goals have been attained.

Wood et al. (1981:88) explain that the five stages outlined may not necessarily be discrete, sequential steps and that there may be an overlap in the application of these stages. For example, training, implementation and maintenance may occur simultaneously as individuals and groups progress at different rates in the pursuit of the same outcomes. Additionally, there may be a need to review commitments periodically and to revise plans for training.

According to the RPTIM model, after identifying specific objectives, programme developers need to ascertain which outcomes should be addressed. This is done through a needs assessment which provides a vehicle for elucidating discrepancies between what "should be" and "what is" in current practice. In accordance with the suggestion of Wood et al. (1981:20), a needs assessment should provide information about the learning style for prospective participants. Information about individual differences such as when and how one learns best, what learning modes, activities and rewards are preferred and how self-directed the participants are in new learning experiences is needed to ensure that these parameters are accommodated in the programmes.

Further, in the training stage, the content, skills and attitudes needed to implement the programme(s) are learnt. These training activities are guided by a knowledge of adult learning. Wood et al. (1981:73) maintains that there are many methods for development, namely workshops, independent study, sabbaticals and educator exchange programmes. These authors advise that it is important to give participants a say in selecting some objectives, activities and materials they will use in a staff development programme. In this way, they are made responsible for their own professional growth since they will choose those variables that are most likely to enhance professional growth (Wood et al. 1981:74).

3.4.1.5 The Job-embedded learning model

Wood and Killian (1998:52-54) undertook a study whereby they interviewed teachers and administrators at five different schools to identify factors associated with successful school-based improvement. They concluded that job-embedded learning is important for professional development of educators for the 21st century. They also came up with a working definition of job-embedded learning as: "learning that occurs as educators and administrators engage in their daily work activities" (Wood and Killian 1998:52).

Job-embedded learning can take place as educators share what they have learnt from their teaching or listening to colleagues relate their experiences of implementing novel teaching strategies and can take the following forms as depicted in table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Forms of job-embedded learning

Form	Strategy
Discussion with others	Educators could attend professional conferences and workshops and upon returning to work would share and discuss what they had learnt.
Peer coaching	Formal peer coaching programmes could entail educators helping peers implement new instructional practices learnt during staff development programmes
Informal peer coaching	Teachers could spent approximately 15 minutes a week observing and evaluating a peer teach.
Mentoring of educators	This is essential for the integration of new educators and can occur at the informal or formal level. A mentor can help a colleague identify weaknesses and suggest remedies.
Study group and action research	Educators could partner on their own to solve a problem or pilot a new programme or instructional strategy.

This type of development has three major attributes: relevance, feedback and transfer. Relevance is assured if learning is part of daily work and addresses current challenges. In job-embedded staff development, training occurs in the educator's regular workplace as part of the normal work routine. This maximizes learning, as adults tend to learn what is relevant to their professional and personal responsibilities (Zepeda 1999:78).

Feedback can be provided through mentoring, peer coaching, self-reflection and dialogue. Mentoring can help alleviate a sense of isolation because of greater interaction with colleagues and improve self-esteem. Feedback offered by a peer coach can be objective, encourages reflection, helps in solving problems and produces an immediate response to concerns. Joyce and Showers (1988:85) describe peer coaching as "a common training experience in which participants have learnt not only new knowledge, skills and strategies but also a common language regarding what they are attempting to implement and shared understandings about the purposes of their new practices". Additionally, meaningful dialogue can be created through the use of reflective questioning which can cultivate an atmosphere of learning. Study group discussions, videotape analysis and keeping a teaching journal all promote and enhance reflection (Zepeda 1999:79).

On the issue of transfer of practice, Hirsh and Ponder (in Zepeda 1999:80) cite that research shows that only 10% of teachers are able to transfer newly learnt skills into daily practice. Continuing in the same vein, Joyce and Showers (1988:86) maintain that while all teachers can develop skills in performing a new teaching strategy quite easily, the difficulties arise when the skill is applied in the

classroom. For example, in the context of a workshop, educators would have little difficulty learning a teaching model and carrying them out with materials provided. In the classroom, however, they might have problems reorganizing materials, educating their students to respond to new strategies and creating new lessons that correlate with novel teaching/learning methods. These kinds of tasks become the focus of coaching.

Wood and Killian (1998:53) reported that although professional learning takes place through job-embedded learning, educators do not see this as staff development. They were not aware of the extensive professional growth from the job-embedded staff development experiences occurring on a daily basis. They were more accustomed to identifying and discussing traditional development programmes like workshops and conferences.

A recommendation by Wood and Killian (1998:54), is to use job-embedded learning to support the transfer of learning from staff development workshops into daily practice. For example, study groups can be formed that will work together to plan, implement, share and evaluate their efforts to use what they have learnt. In fact they suggest less emphasis on traditional in-service workshops and more on integrating professional learning into daily activities through strategies such as action research, study groups, team planning and teaching formal and informal peer observations and faculty sharing during departmental meetings.

Thus, staff development need not be an annual event that people attend and then forget about once they have returned to their departments. It should be an integral part of one's job. In this writer's experience, this is lacking in higher education in this country. It is very unfortunate that educators simply do not talk or communicate enough and sharing the sharing of ideas, knowledge and experiences are virtually non-existent in some places.

3.4.1.6 The self-management model

The self-management model designed for staff development of medical educators was developed by Stone (1990:195) who proposed the inculcation of skills and techniques that "enable the professional to obtain the evidence of his/her own accountability as a teacher".

Providing feedback on teaching to educators is one of the hallmarks of this model. Basic principles are used as a means for providing feedback. Individual staff members assume responsibility for identifying the activities they expect will accomplish the goals and objectives, which they helped establish. Therefore, the main responsibility for analysis of teaching resides with the educators

themselves. Educators are evaluated on the basis of their ability to respond to data over a period of time. Criteria for evaluation of performance are developed in terms of specific roles to be performed within the context of specific programmes to be implemented (Stone 1990:195).

Stone (1990:196) continues by saying that the process for providing feedback to faculty consists of several steps. Firstly, a database is created. Students can provide unique insights into teaching since they experience what is going on in the classroom. Peers can play a role by monitoring faculty input, for example, determining whether the information presented is accurate or appropriate for that level. Data from examinations can also be used to measure student learning. Areas to be improved are identified by peers and the staff member outlines a plan of action for improvement.

Once the feedback system is in place, essential elements of effective teaching in which the faculty would need to develop competence is identified and then incorporated into a teaching model. The elements of effective teaching as outlined by Stone (1990:197) are:

1) Deciding what should be taught.
2) Prioritizing learning objectives.
3) Providing a framework of expectations.
4) Designing appropriate learning experiences which incorporate problem-solving and systematic decision-making.
5) Providing regular feedback to students regarding their achievement of their objectives.
6) Providing alternative learning experiences, for example, remedial exercises.
7) Providing positive reinforcement.
8) Establishing good interpersonal relationships with students and colleagues.

3.4.1.7 The individually guided model

A design for the individually guided model for use in higher education was produced in 1985 by Tracy and Schuttenberg (in Zepeda 1999:99). This model is self-directed and uses many of the attributes of the RPTIM model. The individual assumes responsibility for the design, implementation, maintenance and evaluation of their own learning. Since this type of learning is specific to the individual's needs, it will be relevant. This model can work together with mentoring, peer coaching and reflection. Individuals can design their own learning programmes to be congruent with the goals of the institution (Zepeda 1999:99-100).

3.4.1.8 The problem-based learning model

This model for the development of school teachers uses real issues or problems to create an active problem-orientated environment (Seifert and Simmons, in Zepeda 1999:101). Achilles and Hoover, (in Zeppeda 1999:101) identify five guidelines for this model:

1) Identification of a problem situation with directions, guiding questions and some resources for the learner to utilize.
2) Letting adults develop clearly stated objectives.
3) Minimizing boundaries so participants can develop their own format for solving the problem.
4) Providing a realistic time frame for participants to solve the problem.
5) Forming groups that elect their own leader or facilitator.

Zepeda (1999:101) proclaim that PBL in the context of staff development can be learner-centered or problem-stimulated. Learner-centered PBL can be beneficial to the adult who is interested in investigating an area of practice that relates directly to his/her needs in the classroom environment. Several teachers can identify a problem and collaboratively explore the issues surrounding the problem. Problem-based learning that is problem-stimulated focuses on a specific problem or a series of related problems within the community. Both methods can assist educators and the organization to grow, reduce isolation and connect members of the community in a focused and meaningful way (Zepeda 1999:102).

Placing the problem-based model into perspective, Stone (1990:198), talks about the medical and educational problem-solving models. The problem-solving model in medicine he refers to is the problem-orientated patient record that contains four basic elements: a database, a problem list, a plan of medical interventions, patient management (treatment plan) and an evaluation of patient progress. John Dewey, put forward the premise that the practice of education also requires a problem-solving approach since learning happens on an individual basis and occurs when an experience has personal meaning for the student- when it is incorporated into an individual's frame of reference and becomes part of his/her cognitive structure. Therefore, the problem-solving task for the teacher is to find the most effective learning alternatives for students.

The problem-solving model used in education is based on the "learning cycle" and contains four basic elements: a needs assessment (corresponds to the database in medicine), a statement of objectives (corresponds to the problem list in medicine), a plan of instructional intervention (corresponds to the treatment plan in medicine) and a plan for the evaluation of student achievement which corresponds to the evaluation of patient progress in medicine (Stone 1990:199). Thus, the student is likened to the

patient and the clinical reasoning process is compared to the educational setting. Stone (1999:199) advises that the similarities of the medical and educational problem-solving models to which medical educators could easily relate, could be used as a guide for developing and implementing a specific course of instruction. There are many overlaps between medicine and education, for example, success in either profession requires establishing "helping" relationships with patients or students.

3.4.1.9 The prototypic human resource model

Parker (1990:87) presents a prototypic human resource model for staff development of educators at all levels. The elements thereof include assessment, planning, implementation, evaluation and participant empowerment. Since the elements of assessment and planning are closely intertwined, this model is also referred to as an assessment-based staff development model.

Fessler and Burke (in Parker 1990:91) observed that the purpose of staff assessment should be the identification of growth needs that will serve as the template for planning appropriate strategies for development. This model is based on the premise that the needs of educators can best be addressed if they are involved in identifying their own priorities and planning collaboratively to meet those needs. The planning process is divided into two stages: a readiness stage and a plan development stage. Specific activities in the former stage are establishment of a governance structure, the development of a rationale or mission and establishing programme goals (Parker 1990:94). In the latter stage, goals and identified priorities are translated into activity formats and delivery systems. Programme developers also need to consider the nature of adult learners, the change process and educator career stages when setting objectives (Glickman, in Parker 1990:97). Three types of objectives must be taken cognisance of, namely knowledge objectives, strategies or skill objectives and attitude objectives (Wood et al., in Parker 1990:97).

Joyce and Showers (in Parker 1990:99) identified five training components for staff development planners to choose from:

1) Exploration of theory and concepts.
2) Demonstration or modeling of the skills.
3) Opportunities to practice the skills.
4) Feedback about performance.
5) Coaching in the workplace.

Hence, participants must have sufficient opportunity to develop skills that they can eventually practice in classroom settings (Parker 1990:99). During the planning stage, attention should be given to the

career stages of educators since the professional development needs of new educators are very different from those of experienced teachers (McLaughlin and Marsh, in Parker 1990:98).

In a human resource development model which is based on the participant's needs and is embedded in the overall instructional programme, planning and implementation are inseparable and not easily discernible. Just as assessment and planning are interwoven, so too will the elements of planning and implementation be joined (Parker 1990:101). Wu (in Parker 1990:101) asserts that teachers are an "untapped gold mine" and must be used extensively as staff developers. These roles include serving as workshop presenters, peer coaches and mentors to new inexperienced staff. Also, cross-organizational collaboration is a cost-effective means of providing staff development. The sharing of ideas and human resources results in instructional improvement and the enhancement of curriculum development efforts.

The implementation stage also comprises monitoring of tasks and activities in order to ascertain whether new behaviors are being practiced and goals are being met (Wood et al., in Parker 1990:106). Parker (1990:106) stresses the importance of incentives in encouraging participation in staff development programmes and helping to stimulate commitment needed to sustain an innovation.

As regards evaluation, Parker (1990:107) asserts that the data collected to determine the perceived effects of a workshop is just one aspect of assessment. Assessment information should also include evaluation of the extent of implementation of the staff development plan as well as effects on performance in the workplace. Furthermore, it is important to consider process and outcome variables to ensure that the programme is being implemented correctly. Formative data should be collected as the programme unfolds so as to improve the process. Summative evaluation is intended to make global decisions about the continuation of a programme (Loucks-Horsley et al., in Parker 1990:110).

According to the human resource development model, when educators share authority and responsibilities while engaging in collaborative assessment, planning, implementation and evaluation, that is participant empowerment. If educators are to be empowered, they will need to be lifted in three main areas, notably, status, knowledge and access to decision making. Simply making staff development opportunities available is insufficient for empowering educators. This model requires that they take responsibility for their own growth and professional development (Maeroff, in Parker 1990:111-112).

Parker (1990:114) summarizes that the human resource model described above is an example of what is most likely to work in staff development because it is one that has the potential for initiating

substantial change in the individual through a group process that provides for support, the exchange of ideas, the maintenance of enthusiasm and problem-solving capabilities.

3.4.1.10 The career lattice model

The career lattice model for school educators outlined by McDonnell and Christensen (1990:123-124) is made up of four aspects of an educator's professional development activity. The first aspect represents those roles of educators as they go about their work. The idea is to sort out their multifaceted roles and to organize them into a multi-step plan of professional development. The following categories include some of the roles educators assume to meet personal and professional needs in the career lattice:

1) As a learner, the educator learns new skills or content.
2) As a knowledge producer, in the development of course materials and new curricula.
3) As a peer coach, namely, a collegial adviser offering support to a colleague.
4) In a collaborative role, sharing knowledge with other experienced educators at other universities.
5) As a mentor, rendering a long-term supportive role to a new colleague.
6) As a leader, involved in curriculum development or in a content area.

The second aspect relates to those responsibilities that educators have as they carry out their various roles, for example, the usual classroom activities. These teaching responsibilities listed in the model pertain to evaluating students, planning for instructional strategies, selecting curriculum or material- all being part of the teaching cycle of diagnosing, planning, teaching and evaluating. Related areas could include classroom management, communication and exhibiting professionalism (McDonnell and Christensen 1990:124).

The third aspect of the career lattice involves identification of the initiators of the activity. The person initiating the activity could be the educator, peer, administrator or learner. A specific problem could be identified and a plan developed to remedy the deficiency. Once the roles and responsibilities of the professional development plan are decided upon and the plan started, it is necessary to put the fourth component into action. This pertains to the actual experiences which empower the educator proceeding with an individualized development programme. Examples of empowerment experiences are: education or training, experience, development activities such as travel, conferences, workshops, organizational work, research/reading, classroom visitation and released time. These activities must be varied to meet the particular stage of the educator and to focus on the development goals. Also,

they will serve as incentives to enhance the profession for educators (McDonnell and Christensen 1990:125-126).

To explain further, these authors purport that conferences can provide opportunities to develop expertise, to network and develop a collaborative group of professionals interested in the same issues. Travel can be used profitably in developing areas of knowledge, skills and novel methods of teaching and learning. Reading information about current research should be a continuing exercise for educators (Mcdonnell and Christensen 1990:127). Therefore, this model is a support structure for professional growth and development and for educator empowerment. It seeks to identify the various roles of the educator and to separate these elements so as to approach a career development plan in a more knowledgeable way for short- and long-term results. For this to materialize, the needs of the personal environment and those of the organizational environment should be well articulated (McDonnell and Christensen 1990:128).

3.4.1.11 The twinning model

In the UK the Enterprise in Higher Education (EHE) programme was established with a view to the pursuit of change and innovation in teaching and learning methods. This led to the emergence of a staff development strategy for selected higher education institutions and was named "twinning". The underlying aim of twinning pertains to getting two higher education institutions to team up with each other to pursue a shared strategy, allowing the dissemination of EHE programmes and the exchange of good educational practice (Saunders 1999:119, 121).

A Twinning programme for staff development is described by Saunders (1999:118-127) which involved collaboration between educators from the University of Glamorgan in Wales and the Bath College of Higher Education in England. This operation involved the establishment of a steering group, working groups, the appointment of a project evaluator and the running of staff development workshops. Numerous conferences and meetings were held which focused on: 1) Provision of teaching/learning materials already prepared, 2) Collaboration in preparing new materials, 3) Mentoring, 4) Staff development workshops, 5) Information Technology training, 6) Evaluation, and 7) Joint bids for external funding (Saunders 1999:122).

Topics for staff development included peer tutoring, mentoring and accreditation, open and distance learning including work-based learning. The methods involved workshops and group discussions. Adding to this, a collaborative research emerged around specific activities. Evaluation of the project revealed that participants thought it was a huge success. On completion of the venture, the two

institutions concerned were exploring continuation strategies and in this respect, the process took on a helical, rather than a linear character (Saunders 1999:122, 25).

3.4.1.12 A synthesis and interpretation of staff development models

Table 3.9 gives a summary of the models discussed in this subsection which have been grouped according to overlaps in their main principles, activities or themes, although there may still be overlaps in activities and principles among different groups. For example, job-embedded learning in group 3 has several collaborative features in common with models in group 4, and the individually guided model in group 1 would fit in well in group 3.

Table 3.9: A categorization of models based on the similarities of their principles and activities.

Grouping of models	Name of model
Group1: Models with stages or phases	• Input, process, output (Tobin et al.1979:11-14). • RPTIM (Wood et al. 1981:63) • Individually guided (Tracy and Schuttenberg in Zepeda 1999:99) • Prototypic human resource (Parker 1990:87)
Group 2: Models that focus on the individual.	• Self management (Stone 1990:195) • Developmental (Kent in Tobin et al. 1979:117) • Personal growth (Main 1985:92) • Career lattice (McDonnell and Christensen 1990:123-124)
Group3: Models that focus on learning on the job.	• Problem-based learning (Achilles and Hoover in Zepeda 1999:101) • Job-embedded learning (Wood and Killian 1998:52) • Medical and Educational problem-solving (Stone 1990:198)
Group 4: Collaborative staff development	• The twinning model (Saunders 1999:118-127 • Collegial model (Boud and McDonald in Smith 1992:42)

Group1 relates to models that have stages or phases. Tobin's (1979:11-14) input, process, output model covers the aspects of planning, implementation and evaluation. The RPTIM model described by Wood et al. (1981:63) involves five stages, namely, readiness, planning, training, implementation and maintenance. In the individually guided model, the individual takes responsibility for the design, implementation, maintenance and evaluation of his/her own learning (Tracy and Schuttenberg, in Zepeda 1999:99). The components of the prototypic human resource model include assessment, planning, implementation, evaluation and participant empowerment (Parker 1990:87).

Group 2 models focus on the individual. Stone's self-management model (Stone 1990:195) advocates that individuals assume responsibility for analysis of their own teaching. In the development model there is an emphasis on development of the self and others (Kent, in Tobin et al. 1979:117) while Main's (1985:92) personal growth model is characterized by acceptance and respect for the whole person. The career lattice model focuses on the educator's personal and professional development (McDonnell and Christensen 1990:123-124).

The models in group 3 pertain to on the job training, four examples of which are given: the problem-based learning model (Achilles and Hoover, in Zepeda 1999:101), the medical and educational problem-solving models (Stone 1990:198) and the job-embedded learning model of Wood and Killian (1998:52). The former three advocate the use of actual problems experienced in the workplace as a starting point for addressing needs for staff development. The last model (job-embedded learning model) is based on the premise that educators learn as they go about their daily tasks from mentoring, self-reflection and dialogue.

The collaborative model (Saunders 1999:118-127) and the collegial model (Boud and McDonald, in Smith 1992:42) in the fourth group is typified by inter-institutional sharing of educational issues through mentoring and peer tutoring and also covers topics such as information technology and work-based learning (Saunders 1999:118-127), which is more in tandem with our technological, information age.

Therefore, some models discussed here focus on the development of the whole person -from a humanistic perspective and also in terms of their professional development. Further to this are the varying angles from which these development initiatives can be approached, namely, top-down, for example the prescription-orientated model of Rutherford (1982:184) and the management model of Yorke (in Smith 1992:44), and bottom-up, for example the individually guided model of Tracy and Schuttenberg (in Zepeda 1999:99).

Other models like the RPTIM model (Wood et al. 1981:63), prototypic human resource model (Parker 1990:87) and Tobin et al's. (1979:11-14) input, process, output model, give clear steps that can be followed when devising staff development programmes. For example, conducting a needs assessment and the subsequent implementation, evaluation and maintenance of staff development programmes can be useful for planning and initiation of a staff development programme.

Moreover, by examining the subtleties of a variety of approaches/models towards staff development, one can more readily pick up trends or practices that should be avoided and the importance of having balanced goals and philosophies. For instance, the authoritarian model (Harding et al., in Smith

1992:41) by itself is prescriptive and makes participation in staff development activities, compulsory. This could fuel resentment in those who are not in agreement with educational change and staff development. If this model is combined with the personal growth model of Main (1985:92) or the self-management model outlined by Stone (1990:195), a two dimensional staff development model that ensures that individuals improve themselves personally and professionally while giving them individual choice in this process, could be achieved. A third dimension could be added by including the twinning model described by Saunders (1999:118-127), which involves collaboration with other academics with the aim of development and empowerment.

It might not be educationally sound to follow one model strictly but to design with one's own model based on the philosophical underpinnings of models described in the literature. There is no magical formula or model for designing and implementing an appropriate staff development programme. Staff development can be customized by mixing and matching different models and methods and in this sense it can be eclectic: "reshaping practice involves melding new strategies with existing ones" (Zepeda 1999:96).

To explain further, if the RPTIM model (Wood and coworkers 1981:63) is followed, it would give a sense of direction that can be followed for the development of staff. At the same time the personal growth model of Main (1985:92) and the developmental model (Kent, in Tobin et al. 1979:117) can be adopted as part of the staff development process since it is important to take into account the aspirations, motivation and abilities of staff in terms of their own learning. Also, the problem-based learning model (Seifert and Simmons, in Zepeda 1999:101) will enhance the relevance of staff development programmes through the use of real life problems that are encountered in the classroom.

More specifically, what has come across as crucial in the initiation of staff development is a needs assessment study. Zepeda (1999:95) purports that conducting a needs assessment survey is one step for ensuring success because specific needs of the academe can be identified and then satisfied through staff development. The identification of needs is the crux of Rutherford's product-orientated and process-orientated model (1982:184-185), Tobin et al's. (1979:11-14) input, output, process model as well as the RPTIM model of Wood and colleagues (1981:63). These models claim that establishing the needs of prospective participants helps to instill in them an understanding of the desired changes and helps create a climate and "readiness" for change in professional behavior while helping to establish learning styles and activities for prospective participants (Wood et al. 1981:65-66). A needs assessment can also expedite the diagnosing of problems that can be mutually solved, as advocated by the process-orientated model (Rutherford 1982:185) and help elucidate the learning content of the programme (Tobin et al. 1979:11-14).

Additionally, what has been extracted from the models covered in this subsection are activities in the staff development process. These activities have been mentioned by the designers of several models and a common theme running through these models has been identified and depicted in figure 3.6.

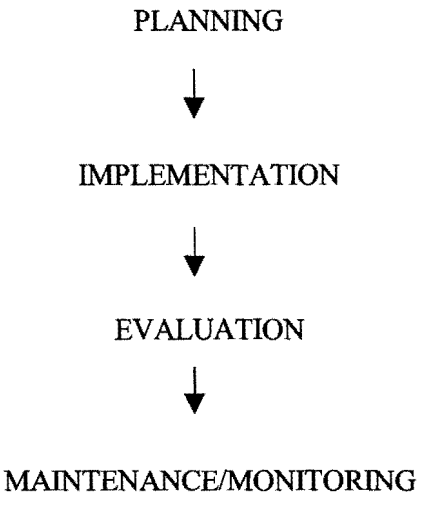

Figure 3.6: Activities in a staff development process

These activities are not marked by solid boundaries but can flow into each other. For example, formative and summative evaluation can be conducted during the implementation phase to determine the success of the programme and that of participants' learning (Wood and Neil, in Wood et al. 1981:82). Also, planning and assessment are interwoven, as are the elements of planning and implementation (Parker 1990:101). The activities outlined in figure 3.6 have been expanded in tabulated form and presented in tables 3.10-3.13.

Table 3.10: The planning activities of staff development

Creating readiness/establishing goals.	Climate that supports change is developed and channels for communication are open. Goals are set (Wood et al. 1981:63). Development of a mission (Parker 1990:94).
Objectives and needs assessment are panned.	Selected goals are translated into detailed objectives with the help of a needs assessment (Wood et al. 1981:63 and Tobin et al. 1979:11-14).
Draft design of the training and implementation is drawn up.	Strategies, skills and knowledge to be learnt is decided upon to bring about a change in professional behavior (Wood et al. 1981:69). Available resources should be taken into account (Tobin et al. 1979:11-14).

During the planning phase, goals are set and a needs assessment helps to further specify objectives (Wood et al. 1981:63 and Tobin et al. 1979:11-14). Strategies and activities are also elucidated and a tentative blueprint of the training programme is engineered (Tobin et al. 1979:12 and Wood et al. 1981:69).

The next phase is implementation, the procedures of which are given in table 3.11. Implementation in this case refers to conducting workshops, lectures and seminars. It differs to implementation as referred to by Wood et al. (1981:86) who refer to implementation as on the job application of what has been learnt during the training stage.

Table 3.11: Implementation activities of staff development

Implementation through various methods and strategies	For example, workshops, independent study, sabbaticals and educator exchange programmes (Wood et al. 1981:73). Through peer coaching, mentoring and action research, educators engage in learning as they participate in daily activities (Wood and Killian 1998:52).
Participant empowerment	Self-directed learning is used for empowerment of the individual (Kent, in Tobin et al. 1979:117). Evaluation of educator by students and faculty helps enhance teaching/learning abilities (Stone 1990:196).
Focus on problems encountered in real-work situations	Educators can identify a problem related to work and collaboratively try to solve it. This would help establish greater collegial relationships (Zepeda 1999:102).

Following the implementation phase is that of evaluation which can take two forms, namely, 1) Evaluation of the staff development process and 2) Evaluation of the knowledge and skills acquired by educators (Parker 1990:107). See table 3.12.

Table 3.12: Evaluation activities of staff development

Evaluation of knowledge and skills of educators gained during implementation/training stage.	Summative data can be collected by determining changes in educators' behavior (Parker 1990:107) through student feedback and peer observation and coaching (Wood et al. 1981:86-87 and Stone 1990:195), self-reflection, dialogue and mentoring (Zepeda 1999:79) as well as microteaching situations (Loucks-Horsely et al., in Parker 1990:108).
Evaluation of the staff development process: Formative and summative	This measures the extent to which implementation of the staff development plan has been a success (Parker 1009:107) as it unfolds and whether it should be continued (Loucks-Horsely et al., in Parker 1990:110).

After evaluation has been effected, maintenance activities will establish whether and to what extent knowledge and skills learnt can be transferred in classroom situations (see table 3.13).

Table 3.13: Maintenance activities of staff development

Application of knowledge and skills acquired during the training stage of staff development	Acquired skills and knowledge need to be transferred into practice and this can be monitored by peers who assist each other (Wood et al. 1981:86-87).

The next subsection continues with the discussion of how staff development is conducted by focusing on the methods and strategies that are applicable to the implementation of staff development programmes.

3.4.2 A brief overview of strategies and methods used in staff development programmes

It is evident from the literature that workshops and seminars are the predominant methods used in staff development. Some literature evidence to support this claim in given in this subsection. In addition, this subsection covers strategies such as collaboration, peer observation, mentoring, teaching portfolios and action research.

3.4.2.1 Methods used in the staff development process

Workshops and seminars are common methods of staff development and their use is extensively reported in the literature (Blunt 1998:103, Moses 1988:199 and Steinert, Nasmith and Daigle 2000:554). Blunt (1998:103) reports on how workshops and meetings held at the University of Port Elizabeth allowed for more intense exploration of topics and the development of action research projects.

The format of a professional development programme as described by Moses (1988:199) in reference to a study undertaken at the University of Queensland (Australia), focused on workshops on large and small group teaching skills as well as workshops on lecturing. The emphasis was on enhancing teaching skills, motivating students and helping them improve their communication skills as well as personal development, time and stress management plus computer-assisted teaching and learning.

Research related aspects of staff concerns, for example, research grant applications and publishing were also included.

Moses (1988:201) reported that suggested group activities included lunch hour films or videos. This tends to be enjoyable, passive and an undemanding way of getting some useful tips. It should be followed by a brief discussion and handouts. Seminars or discussion sessions on specific topics by an expert, followed by general discussion is a format which staff feel comfortable. "The amount and range of expertise in the university at large is naturally far greater than any one person or even persons in an academic development unit could have". Not tapping this expertise would indeed be a great waste of available resources". (Moses 1988:202). One could involve visiting staff or staff at one's institution in delivering seminars or symposia. One can then get the support of these people for further staff development efforts.

As opposed to the passive lecture methods, workshops demand active involvement of all participants. Moses (1988:201) observed that evaluations revealed that those who participated, enjoyed the active involvement and the discussions around teaching and learning, and learnt from it. Furthermore, experiences and information from workshops and seminars might trigger changes in the organization and presentation of course materials, in course content, in interaction with students or in other activities (Moses 1988:202). On the other hand some staff had reservations about attending workshops because of their interactive nature and preferred workshops where active participation was optional and where they were in control of their contributions. That not all staff would want active involvement, is a lesson for the staff developer who believes in learning through doing (Moses 1988:191). Some staff prefer more passive, non-threatening settings than the workshop settings that forces participation.

Moreover, workshops can give educators an idea of how to conduct their own workshops. A case in point is that of the experience of Steinert et al. (2000: 554) who describe a three-day workshop held by the Department of family Medicine at McGill University, designed to assist educators in planning, conducting and evaluating workshops. On the first day, plans were made and objectives set. On the second day, strategies for conducting and evaluating workshops were covered. The last day emphasized facilitation skills for large and small groups. All participants rated the workshop very useful since they were able to appreciate the importance of planning and providing structure in conducting workshops as well as seeing them in action. They could then apply this to their own teaching/learning situations.

As far as developing staff is concerned, the importance of doing cannot be overemphasized. Expanding on this, Mennin and Kaufman (1989:12), warn that it should not be assumed that because

one has explained a new programme to colleagues that they can fully understand and absorb it. They advise that the best way to understand an innovation is to participate in it. They substantiate this claim by citing an example of academics at New Mexico, who expanded their teaching repertoire, by participating in a two and a half day hands-on workshop. Until then, they did not fully understand how small group, student-centered learning worked. The literature suggests that faculty development programmes are begun in order to reduce the time required to learn to facilitate, and to provide guidance for improvement thereof (Wilkerson and Irby 1998:388).

3.4.2.2 Strategies used in staff development

Much of the earlier literature on staff development focuses on methods that follow a "training" paradigm, that is, short-term sessions designed to impart specific skills. In contrast to the training paradigm are approaches or strategies that emphasize growth and development of the educator. In this respect, the strategies for staff development that have come into vogue are collaborative staff development, mentoring, peer review, teaching portfolios and action research. These strategies are discussed in this paragraph.

3.4.2.2.1 Collaborative staff development

It is argued in the literature that the content of staff development activities can no longer be determined from top management alone:

> "The provision of opportunities for self-reflection and critical debate and for the collaborative sharing of ideas, issues and concerns become the new staff development content or agenda" (Scott and Weeks 1996:102).

The collaborative approach towards staff development suggests that many of the talents and abilities needed to find answers to issues related to professional practice lie within academic staff themselves. Organizing programmes around the collaborative approach entails providing opportunities to pose questions, analyze problems, seek solutions and test answers. Teamwork and collegiality rather than autonomy alone are respected values within the institution (Austin 1998:17-18). An open, problem-solving, inquiry approach to teaching/learning issues is encouraged in a climate of shared reflection, discussion and deliberation (Scott and Weeks 1996:108).

There are numerous documented examples of collaborative staff development. Three selected cases are reported here. Firstly, Austin (1998:12-16) describes six types of "collegial conversations", shown

in table 3.14, each of which provides an opportunity for dialogue and exchange of ideas, for inquiry about the teaching/learning process and exchanged connections among colleagues.

Table 3.14: Types of collegial conversations

Type	Implementation
Topic lunch seminars	These can be augmented with prior reading on the topic.
Share fairs	Departments gather to learn about each other's courses through formal presentations. Syllabi, assignments and student assessment are discussed.
Action research teaching/learning projects	Groups of two or three academic staff can work together to identify teaching/learning problems and to gather data to bring about solutions which can be acted upon.
Colleague partnerships	This refers to two colleagues who work together for the purpose of exploring, discussing and improving teaching. They observe each other's lectures and share observations and perspectives.
Career stage groups	Academics at the same stage in their careers meet and exchange ideas and experiences.
Department chairperson discussion groups	These provide an opportunity for departmental heads to get to know their peers. Examples of topics covered would be institutional priorities and plan, approaches to strategic planning, budgeting models and support for academic staff development.

Secondly, Scott and Weeks (1996:105-106) communicate about the teaching, reflection and collaboration network at the Queensland University of Technology. Members meet monthly to:

1) Identify individual and collective areas of interest and concern.
2) Reflect critically on their teaching experiences.
3) Undertake purposeful inquiry to assist and improve student learning.
4) Explore available knowledge on a topic of interest.
5) Adapt and apply the best available theories to andragogical practice to articulate problems faced so that solutions may be found through collaborative inquiry.
6) Organize and make public the findings of their research through presentations and/or publications.

Thirdly, Weir, Radloff and Hudson (2000:161-163) describe the development of staff through a collaborative link project between the University of the Free State as well as twelve other tertiary institutions in South Africa including Curtin University of Technology in Australia. The focus was on empowerment of the individual, effected through exchange visits and video-conferencing whereby ideas about teaching and learning were exchanged. The pillars of the project were:

1) Action research.
2) Teamwork, involvement and social networking.
3) Establishment of internal and external review systems.
4) The principles of total quality management.
5) The vision to see these mechanisms working in tandem to achieve success and to enhance quality.

The "action" stage of this project included activities like workshops, seminars, training courses and staff induction programmes. What was achieved was the compilation of staff development materials, development of materials in the area of teaching/learning, for example problem-based, resource-based learning facilitation, teaching portfolios, team-building workbooks, research activities on teaching/learning matters and the development of policy initiatives such as curriculum planning. The experiences of those involved in the project was made public at a conference on teaching/learning issues and in this sense the project took on an action research theme (Weir et al. 2000:165).

Therefore, in collaborative staff development, there is an exchange of ideas and experiences among groups of academics in the same or different institution with the aim of enhancing the quality of teaching/learning and research. Also, the idea distilled from the reports on collaborative staff development is that action research features widely in the warp of the fabric of such an approach. Action research is discussed in more detail in subsection 3.4.2.2.5. Peer observation and review of the teaching/learning process is yet another technique for the enhancement of academic quality and this topic is given coverage in the subsection that follows.

3.4.2.2.2 Peer observation and peer review of teaching for the enhancement of academic quality

In a survey on staff perceptions of peer review conducted at the University of Witwatersrand, Crosser (1998:146) found that about 69.3% of respondents favor the introduction of a systemic peer review at the university. Cosser (1998:160) puts the importance of peer review into perspective by explaining that, since the passing of the SAQA Act, there are demands that QA play a major role in higher education. Peer review allows academic staff to determine the quality of their work themselves thus mitigating against bureaucratic imposition from outside the institution.

Peer observation of teaching emphasizes continuous process and peer feedback rather than course attendance (Blackwell and McLean 1996:157). The process of teaching observation that Blackwell

and McLean (1996:160) describe is structured around three key episodes: before, during and after observation. Feedback forms were developed and designed to structure the observations and discussions. The first form is scene setting, requiring educators to indicate their aims and objectives for the scenario to be discussed with the observer, before the session. The second form is completed by the observer after the session, indicating what went well and what might be improved. A copy is sent to the educator for discussion within a fortnight. A third form, containing the main points to emerge from the discussion and reflection is completed by the educator and a copy sent to the observer.

Mentoring or coaching is another way of developing the requisite skills and knowledge and thus becomes another method of staff development. The next paragraph gives a brief exposition of this concept.

3.4.2.2.3 Mentoring/coaching as a staff development approach

A definition of a mentor as gleaned from the literature is as follows:

> "A mentor is someone who is open and accepting, supports and encourages, uses their own experiences in a positive way, empowers people to do things for themselves, helps people through an important transition" (Cox 2000:2).

Therefore, there can be little doubt that if mentoring is managed well from a foundation of knowledge, it can provide excellent support, challenge and development opportunities for people (Garvey and Alred 2000:1).

Research has shown that mentoring or coaching is advantageous in that it contributes to transfer of training in a number of ways. Educators who are coached practice new strategies more frequently and acquire more skills in the actual implementation of a new teaching/learning strategy than do un-coached educators who have received identical initial training. Additionally, coached educators apply their newly learned strategies more appropriately than un-coached educators, in terms of their own instructional objectives and the theories of certain models of teaching. Coached educators have opportunities to discuss with each other teaching/learning objectives as well as strategies with curricula materials, to accomplish these objectives (Showers, in Joyce and Showers 1988:88).

Moreover, coached educators exhibited more long term retention of knowledge concerning certain skills and strategies than their un-coached counterparts (Baker and Showers, in Joyce and Showers 1988:89). Showers (in Joyce and Showers, 1988:89) discovered that coached educators were more

likely to teach new models of teaching to their students to ensure that they understand the purpose of the strategy and the behaviors expected of them when implementing the strategy. Coached educators were also found to exhibit clearer cognitions with respect to the purposes and uses of new strategies, than un-coached educators.

The next category of strategies discussed in this chapter is that of teaching portfolios which is becoming very popular around the world.

3.4.2.2.4 Teaching Portfolios as a means of enhancing academic quality

There is increasing support for the recognition of teaching and teaching excellence. Assessing the efficiency, effectiveness and productivity of educators is a difficult task and for this reason the teaching portfolio is becoming popular at institutions around the world (Wilkinson and Buchner 1998:88).

What is a teaching portfolio? It is a two-part document created by a faculty member to communicate teaching philosophies and to highlight representative teaching/learning accomplishments (Williams 1997:101) while providing a means of reflection where the lecturer can critique own work and evaluate the effectiveness of lessons (Wilkinson and Buchner 1998:88). In addition, a portfolio is an instrument that is used as a means of authentic assessment in evaluating the effectiveness of an educator for promotion and/or for employment (Van Aswegen 2002:40).

Further, Painter (2001:31) defines and explains what a teaching portfolio is:

> "A teaching portfolio is a documented history of a teacher's learning process against a set of teaching standards. A portfolio is much more than an elaborate scrapbook or collection of written documents but rather an individualized portrait of the educator as a professional reflecting on his or her philosophy and practice".

Therefore, thoughtful reflection is the key to developing a good portfolio. When educators stop to think about their beliefs and practices in the classroom, any gaps that exist between the two are easily identifiable (Painter 2001:32-33).

While there is no single correct recipe for preparing a teaching portfolio since it is a highly personalized product (Williams 1997:104), an example is given here, nonetheless. Items to be included in a teaching portfolio are:

1) Teaching responsibilities, for example subjects taught.
2) Personal teaching objectives, for example one's teaching philosophy and methods.
3) Teaching-related professional activity, for example, teaching innovations designed or adapted or contributions to curriculum development.
4) Information from students. The educator presents formal and informal student evaluation.
5) Information from colleagues, for example peer feedback or teaching awards.
6) The appendix which encompasses evidence that supports the narrative section of the portfolio, for example syllabi, peer reviews, student evaluations and articles on teaching accepted for publication (University of Western Australia, in Wilkinson and Buchner 1998:90).

3.4.2.2.5 Action research as a medium for staff development

The concept of action research was first developed by Kurt Lewin in 1948. He described action research as a spiral consisting of planning, action, evaluation and then some kind of action (Hodgkinson and Maree 1998:52). Kember and Gow (1992:297) define action research as "involving practitioners in attempting to improve their teaching through cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting". According to Zuber-Skerritt (1992:22), action research is defined as "the search by higher education educators for solutions to problems in student learning and the testing of these solutions through evaluation". McLean (1995:ix) asserts that action research is not a fad or a new curriculum; it is a reflective approach for making sound judgements about what is being done.

Zuber-Skerritt (1992:11) describes action research as a spiral of cycles of action and research comprising four major components as listed below:

1) Plan: Includes problem analysis and a strategic plan.
2) Action: Refers to the implementation of the strategic plan.
3) Observation: Includes an evaluation of the action by appropriate methods and techniques.
4) Reflection: Pertains to reflecting on the results of the evaluation and on the whole action and research process which may lead to identification of a new problem; and the cycle continues.

The aim of action research, as explained by McKernan (1994:3) "is to solve the immediate and pressing day-to-day problems of practitioners". It is carried out by educators who seek to improve their understanding of events so as to enhance the effectiveness of their practice. Also, the literature indicates that action research could be effective as a method of staff development for improving teaching and learning at tertiary level (Kember and Gow 1992:297). For example, action research provides a process whereby educators can become involved in curriculum design and implementation

as well as selecting the most effective teaching/learning strategies and modifying them to suit their own situations (McLean 1995:2).

A case in point is the report by Beylefeld (1998:167) who describes an action research approach to the development of a training programme for tutors at the University of the Orange Free State-faculty of Health Sciences. The aim was to create a forum where tutors could share experiences regarding the facilitation of student learning within the constraints of the conventional, lecture-dominated curriculum.

At the Hong-Kong Polytechnic, action research as a medium for staff development and curriculum change crystallized out of a collaborative research project which aimed to investigate the extent to which students possessed and used self-managed skills. Hence staff development units who routinely give advice on course development could find projects growing out of this activity. In addition, a workshop on action research helped advertise the concept of action research in education with the expectation that participants get started and become involved in action research projects, following the workshop (Kember and Gow 1992:300).

Similarly, at Griffith University in Australia, academics themselves were involved in inculcating learning skills in students, rather than depending on educational advisers. Staff learnt how to help students learn through discussion, reflection and training in staff development workshops, in small groups or in a one-to-one work relationship between teaching staff and educational advisers working on an action research project. As a result, staff gained a better understanding of how to teach and how to help students learn (Zuber-Skerrit 1992:21-35).

3.5 Conclusion

What has emerged from the first part of this chapter is that many factors contribute towards the necessity for staff development. These factors emanate largely form the premise that transformation and change is very real and will definitely impact on the way academics will be involved in teaching and learning as well as research. Now, more than ever before, there is an increasing demand for high quality education as more and more people come to realize that being educated is paramount for survival in a highly complex, technological society. In order to cope with changing trends in education, academics are going to need development and guidance which is why designing appropriate, effective staff development programmes has become indispensable. Enhancing the excellence of the academe will not only facilitate transformation in education but will also give greater job satisfaction and ultimately it will be society that will benefit.

What then needs to be developed? This chapter has attempted to answer this question, focusing on the scholarship of teaching and research- two main functions of academics. Research is important to generate new knowledge and the teaching/learning situation is a means of ensuring that that information is passed on. The scholarship of research is more easily defined but defining the scholarship of teaching, is more elusive. It therefore, becomes important for educators to be able to give their own definition of the scholarship of teaching. Staff development programmes can provide the opportunity to do just that while also encouraging educators to be reflective and critical about their professional teaching/learning practices. In fact, staff development should aim to develop both the scholarship of teaching and research; the two should not necessarily be mutually exclusive.

Further, it was explained in the introduction (see subsection 3.1) that the purpose of this chapter was to come up with additional variables that contribute towards educational transformation. Thus, two other factors, namely scholarship (of research and teaching) and equity and redress have been identified as being inherent in the process of educational transformation.

Finally, the literature abounds with models and strategies describing how programmes can be designed, implemented and evaluated. The main idea that precipitated from perusing through the literature is that academics need to become more involved in their own development and empowerment. Some authors warn that a staff development model that is prescriptive and adopts a top-down approach only, is likely to ignite resentment in staff. What has come to the fore is that staff development programmes are now advocating reflective, creative, collaborative, problem-solving, research-base techniques and action research is gaining momentum because of its cyclical, reflective nature and emphasis on collaboration and research in the teaching/learning process. What numerous models have also advocated is a needs analysis to afford academics a voice in the staff development process. In short, an analysis of the resources on models and strategies of staff development have also helped shape the nature of staff development in the context of educational transformation.

Further, the factors that drive educational transformation as derived from the literature survey conducted thus far are the following (see subsection 1.2.4):

1) Curriculum development (especially OBE and PBL).
2) Innovations in teaching and learning.
3) A paradigm shift in the teaching/learning process.
4) Quality assurance.
5) Equity and redress.
6) Information and communications technologies.
7) The scholarship of research and teaching.

The next chapter provides an overview of the research methodology for the quantitative study that involved a needs analysis and perception survey among academic staff. The content validation was compiled using references on staff development issues already covered in the preceding three chapters.

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